

The CLEARING HOUSE

November

1949

Extracurricular Troubles? Try
A BUSINESS MANAGER

By PAUL KLINGE

THE GIFTED:
Colfax Partial Segregation Plan
By HEDWIG O. PREGLER

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periment . . . Critical Thinking in Geometry

**A JOURNAL for MODERN
JUNIOR and SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS**

The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

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Our preferred length for articles is 1,000 to

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Extracurricular Troubles? Try a Business Manager

By

PAUL KLINGE

WHEN THE ART teacher slumps in his chair and gives a despairing look that indicates mingled emotions of anger, frustration, and a determined "they shall not pass" attitude, he probably has received a "request" to turn out some work in the next twenty-four hours for an extracurricular event.

Or when the athletic director hears of his colleagues in other schools passing on suddenly, he begins to consider the myriad of details for which he is responsible. Or the dramatics coach, slaving on the stage during a production period, allows his mind to wander to the hair-raising thought that Miss Jones—whose turn it is to sell the tickets—has not found the time to do anything about filling the auditorium.

Such a school probably is in serious need of one individual to manage the business affairs of the extracurricular events.

The office longs for one person to make out the financial reports and the tax forms in a careful, systematized manner. The athletic director wants someone to take over such disagreeable tasks as seeing that the gates are properly manned, the tickets and change in order, and the financial reports balanced and forwarded. The printing instructor, the art department, and the custodial staff, all anxious to help in all

school affairs, nevertheless expect adequate notice of each event, and believe that one person, informed about all their procedures and requirements, can best help them to do a good job.

The bookstore staff hopes for one person to whom they may be responsible for their ticket accounts—the same individual to take charge of the student ticket campaign. The school journalism group, which digs out much of the news from the school calendar, still desires any publicity help it can get, and would like to be able to go to one person for it. The dramatics teacher, the music department, and the senior class sponsors, worried with the responsibility for school events, all demand someone else to take care of the business details, and reason that one person with experience is preferable.

It doesn't take an expensive efficiency expert to figure out that the individual teachers silently hope for one teacher to assume this task. And the principal who is not afraid of specialization in his faculty pines for one teacher to carry out his policies in a busy extracurricular program, where responsibility is centered—a teacher whose experience can be used to improve the next event, and who can give continuity to these multifarious activities.

This one individual need not be a super-

EDITOR'S NOTE

When one teacher, with no other extra-classroom duties, serves as business manager for all of the school's extracurricular events, they tend to be run off with a smoothness, a lack of tension and emergencies, and a freedom from accounting mix-ups seldom known before, says Mr. Klinge. He is Business Manager of Extracurricular Affairs at Thomas Carr Howe High School, Indianapolis, Ind., and wants to tell you about the school's three years of comparative bliss under the plan.

man, or a teacher of unusually broad business experience, or even a saint with unparalleled acumen. He need only be an ordinary teacher who can coordinate the many details of a public all-school event, to prevent duplication and tardiness, and who can control the business procedures so that the whole program is smoothly produced. The secret lies in getting *one* faculty member to assume the job. Rotation of these duties among staff members creates the haphazard, disorganized, shifting, and over-staffed extracurricular program found in many schools.

The problem was largely solved at Thomas Carr Howe High School in Indianapolis, a school of 1,300 pupils, when the principal, Mr. Charles M. Sharp, created such a position and christened it "Business Manager of Extracurricular Affairs." When these duties devolved upon one person three years ago, it was by way of an experiment, but the next year the athletic director wanted the assistance of the new business manager, so today the office combines both athletic and non-athletic business affairs.

The duties of the business manager include handling ticket sales to all athletic events, promotion and responsibility for ticket selling and taking at the gates, and

preparation of financial reports to participating schools and the government. In non-athletic events of an all-school nature, he has charge of promotion, posters, and publicity, which usually do not have the self-propelling characteristics of similar details in athletics.

Ticket sales to school affairs are on an intensive scale and involve many student salesmen. The house management at these performances requires the marshalling of an usher staff and checking to see that parking and seating facilities will be adequate. Financial reports with the tax forms are required. As a public-relations policy, complimentary tickets are given to the staffs of neighboring schools, the faculty, and certain interested parties, and this is also the job of the manager. Last, he has the job of working with the teacher committee to parcel out teacher assignments so that there will be some equality of tasks in the after-school program.

It soon became apparent to the business manager that the extracurricular program should be more of an educational venture and less a complex of unpleasant after-school jobs for the faculty. This transformation has been attempted through the careful training of a student staff, also headed by a student, who perform much of the work.

This staff takes care of much of the supervision of other students and the detail work of bookkeeping, and takes tickets at all doors at non-athletic affairs. Ticket selling at the doors is still retained by teachers, but not because the students were given the job and failed. Athletic affairs usually require men teachers to man the gates, as the crowd and the excitement preclude the assignment of women faculty members, but students may assist in various capacities.

An award system for these students is still in the future, but there is little doubt that they deserve such recognition. The work is invaluable for the student who desires to go into business or advertising.

Because of the emphasis on student participation in the management of extracurricular events, the teacher's load is drastically reduced. At Howe High School, with its very busy schedule, most teachers are not asked to be on duty for more than one evening affair each in a school year; three years ago the range was from three to five. Yet teacher attendance at such affairs has not been reduced, for now they come with friends, with husband or wife, and enjoy the show. The unpleasant feeling of being just another flunkie has been materially lessened.

Financial reports are uniform and detailed, as such sordid matters are now out of the hands of busy sponsors and disinterested outsiders. The principal no longer

must race through the building checking to see that everything is being done for the impending public performance of the school talent.

The appointment of one person as business manager of extracurricular affairs may be the answer to some of the confusion and the feeling of overwork which the program of public events your school produces may induce among teachers and students. The production of a play or a revue or a music program sometimes is a cataclysmic event that shakes the entire school to its foundations. Enthusiasm is a necessity for the production of a successful school play or program, and an experienced business manager may take away the nervous confusion that often accompanies this enthusiasm.



Boys in Grades Exploited for High-School Teams

Is it true that many communities are "tolerating" or maybe encouraging a grade-school basketball program sometimes starting in November and running well into March, with much practice, many games, frequent trips, letters as large as the ones awarded high-school lettermen, big banquets, and lots of ballyhoo—all to the end that "We may have good high-school teams"? It is.

Not every school faces this problem but too many do. "Start 'em young; give 'em a basketball as soon as they can lift one. Make 'em basketball minded. Then, when they reach high school we'll have winning teams."

Is it true that some grade-school pupils played in as many as 30 or more contests with other schools in the past season? It is. Is it true that some grade-school lads played in as many as 3 or more tournaments during the season? It is. In some instances 11- or 12-year-old youngsters were "on the road" night after night, with a tournament championship as the goal.

Is it true that some light-weight boys have dieted or refrained from eating in order to "make the weight" and be allowed to play in a tournament game? It is. What might be the effect on a growing

boy? I say no game is worth it. Is it true that some grade-school teams traveled more miles than high-school teams in the same community? I don't know, but I've heard the statement. Aren't we getting ahead of ourselves?

Is it true that all of this stress and strain may not be good for youngsters in their early teens? It is. Many a kid has been "burned out" by the time he reached his junior year in high school—just "tired" from too much of it.

Is it true that many coaches devote practice time to a small, select group of boys in order to strive for perfection in team play—thereby neglecting other lads in need of recreation? It is. In fact, the situation is sometimes worse than that. Some coaches work with the same small group not only in regular practice periods, but before school and during lunch hours as well. A bit one-sided, I think.

Why do not principals and superintendents put a stop to it all? Some have tried it—and found themselves looking for another job. Why do not school-board members act? Some of them have tried it, too—and found themselves replaced by new board members more "athletically" minded.—A. H. LAUCHNER in "Teacher Talk" (newspaper column).

They Competed only with THEMSELVES

*Language arts
for slow pupils*

By
MARION STRUTHERS

AS AGNES WALKED into my classroom the other day, I had one of those rare and delightful sensations that come not too often to a classroom teacher—a feeling of satisfaction from having helped a pupil develop into a more complete and interesting personality than she had been when first I knew her.

This quiet brown-eyed girl of sixteen was not the glamorous kind who would cause anyone to look at her twice, but I knew that there was a new something in her personality which had developed during the months in which she had been in my classroom. When she first came to me some eight months ago, she sat down at one of the tables in my room, saying nothing and hardly looking at the rest of us. In those first days she was very quiet and spoke only when spoken to. Now as she came in, she smiled at me and sat down with the other pupils at her table and eagerly took part in the conversation that was going on. In short, she behaved as any normal teen-age girl would in a classroom. What had wrought these changes in her personality?

It all started the preceding spring when the proposal was made to establish an English class in our high school, for slow learners who found it difficult to keep up with the work done by any regular class. The class was to be experimental, would have no more than twenty-five pupils, and would not follow the regular course of study. This proposal interested me, for I had often noticed in my classes of eleventh- and twelfth-grade boys and girls that some had great difficulty in keeping up with the

others, and yet I had felt that I could not, in all fairness to the class, take time to give the individual attention that the slow learners should have. I asked to be allowed to teach this class and was given the opportunity. Several conditions had to be satisfied before the special class could be organized.

The first step in the organization was the selection of the members of the group. From the boys' and girls' counselors and from the English teachers, I received the names of the pupils who were finding it difficult to keep up with the regular work in tenth-grade English. It was understood that anyone who could but would not do the regular work in language arts was not to be recommended for membership in the class. Membership was further restricted to those pupils who sincerely tried to do good work in a regular class but couldn't because of some learning difficulty. The intelligence quotients and scores on reading tests of the pupils recommended were used as checks. The number in the class was not to exceed twenty-five, and it was intended that the number of boys and the number of girls should be about equal.

After I received the names of the children from the school counselors and the tenth-grade teachers, I examined the school records to get an over-all picture of the various backgrounds of the children, their achievement records, and their plans and ambitions. Then I talked the matter over with the pupils, so that I could explain our plans and see if they wished to take part in the experiment.

These interviews were quite illuminating

and made a great difference in our relationships as teacher and pupils during the year. Some were not interested or could not fit this particular period of English, the last period of the day, into their scheduled classes. By the time of registration I had recruited twenty-five qualified tenth-grade pupils who were willing to be members of the class the following term.

After the members of the class had been selected, the next step was to decide how and what to teach them. The regular course of study and textbooks were discarded, and we substituted whatever means we believed would be effective to get slow learners to read, write, speak, and listen better than they had been doing. We provided recordings, magazines, workbooks, and supplementary books which we believed would help slow learners. The procedure was intended to be entirely informal.

Two things I should like to emphasize in the teaching of such a class. First, a teacher who is working with slow learners must make up his mind in the beginning to accept the boys and girls as he finds them and start from that point. He cannot establish definite standards for them but must take their work as it comes. In fact, in such a class no student should compete with anyone but himself, and his achievement should be rated according to the improvement he makes and not in comparison with the work of his fellows.

Second, the atmosphere of such a class is of prime importance, as it is in any class. Slow learners who have been in a class in which they were definitely below the average have often become confused and bewildered at the rapid rate—to them—of learning of their fellows, and so have become more and more inarticulate. Embarrassed by their inability to keep up, they either have turned in upon themselves more and more or have tried to cover up by blustering. An atmosphere of friendliness and the absence of a critical attitude on the part of the teacher and the other pupils

are absolutely necessary to the success of a slow learner. Besides being aware of these two factors, the teacher must have an abiding patience and a good sense of humor.

To complete the plans for our experimental class, we changed the physical features of the classroom. The forty regulation school desks that had been screwed to the floor in my room for years were removed, and in their place we put five tables—polished light wood tops on metal supports that had one time been bunk frames in the U. S. Navy—large enough to seat eight persons each, and chairs with light blue seats and backs on metal supports. I already had a radio and record player in my room, and so with some vines and a window box, and a low table for reading materials alongside the fifty or so modern novels that I have for my regular classes of seniors, the room became a very informal one. It looked, as one visiting junior-high-school youngster put it, like a cafeteria.

The reactions of the pupils of my regular classes to the room as it now was were varied and interesting. At first they did not take to it too kindly, for teen-age boys and girls are, in many ways, very conservative if not reactionary. In a few days, however, they got used to the tables and chairs. One boy said he did not feel so much alone,

EDITOR'S NOTE

Miss Struthers says that the special English course she taught to a class of senior-high-school slow learners was "a kind of breather" which they had needed. In competition only with other slow students, with materials suited to their interests, they not only made good progress scholastically, but showed appreciable gains in confidence, personality, and social adjustment. The author teaches English in Allentown, Pa., Senior High School.

but one girl said she felt as if she were working at the kitchen table. The class of slow learners who met with me the last period of the day seemed to take to the new arrangement.

Many things may be said about using tables and chairs in a classroom instead of desks. Aside from the fact that they are quite adaptable for the different kinds of projects that are carried on in English class—round tables, panels, radio listening, parties at Christmas time and at the end of school—they are conducive to the informal friendly atmosphere needed in a class of slow learners. The teacher is not "up front" in a god-like position but can sit down with any student to help, talk things over, visit, or encourage. Moreover, the pupils can visit around and sit wherever they choose. When pupils speak to the class they may stand by their own chairs, and especially with the slow learners this is a big help. In this special class, this was very important, for some of the children were particularly shy at the beginning of the year and sitting at the tables seemed to make things easier for them.

In the beginning, when we gave the class the Traxler Silent Reading Test, Form 1, the median of the group was sixth grade in comprehension and speed. Some children, of course, were far below the sixth-grade level on the test. To remedy this slowness in reading speed and comprehension, we used materials adapted to the ability level of the pupils but of such social maturity as to command their interest. At that time the *Reader's Digest Workbook*, an anthology selected from the stories published in the regular magazine over a number of years, had just been published. We found it almost perfectly adapted to our use because the stories it contains are geared to the reading level of the sixth grade. Each article is followed by self-rating tests by means of which the pupil can estimate his own score in reading speed and comprehension. Once or twice a week throughout the term we

used the *Workbook*, and I feel that it was the most valuable aid in our kit for meeting the special needs of this group of slow readers.

As the children acquired reading skill they asked for additional materials. To meet this need we introduced current numbers of the *Reader's Digest*, many articles in which they were able to read quite satisfactorily. Articles were read by individuals and then discussed in informal talks to the class by the pupils who had read them. After the talks, the pupils were asked to write down one of the articles they had heard. In this way the experience became a comprehensive one in the language arts of reading, speaking, listening, and writing for all.

Another magazine, *Coronet*, was used with good results. Together the class and I chose an article which we wanted to read. First, we explored it to identify strange and difficult words, and each pupil marked the words in his own copy of the magazine and then copied them on paper. As they were copying, I gave simple meanings for the words, giving as clear an explanation as possible. The list was then studied, and an oral or written quiz on the words was given—twice if necessary.

We then read the article for comprehension. Following that, we discussed it, with the pupils often presenting or contributing experiences of their own to the subject. After a period of such instruction, I gave them a fifty-question quiz such as I often give to my regular classes on articles, stories, or plays read, and this special group was frequently able to meet these tests just as successfully.

This procedure may seem dull and boring, but I have learned that repetition which might be boring to average pupils is not boring to slow learners so long as the drill is meaningful to them. I have discovered that when handicapped learners are included in a class with members average and above average in ability they

are soon lost and learn little when discussion proceeds at an average pace. The pace must be geared to them in order to afford them opportunity to achieve. As with anyone else, the experience of achievement and success contributes a feeling of self-confidence and a sense of adequacy to slow learners. They, too, should be helped to experience this thrill of success in learning.

As the school term advanced and the class continued to develop reading skill, reading materials of an increasing variety were made available so that each student could begin to follow his individual tastes and interests in reading. Until recent years there has been a dearth of such materials. Fortunately, a number of the classics have been adapted to the reading ability of slow learners and are now available.

Titles which many pupils found particularly interesting were: *A Tale of Two Cities*, *The Count of Monte Cristo*, *Jane Eyre*, *The House of Seven Gables*, *The Three Musketeers*, and *Treasure Island*. It might be added, however, that they showed very little interest in *A Connecticut Yankee at King Arthur's Court*. They also found interesting the American Adventure Series, which included short biographies in separate small volumes of Kit Carson, Davy Crockett, Buffalo Bill, and Daniel Boone. These books, which are geared to the reading level of elementary-school children, they found easy to read not only because of the stories of adventure they contained, but also because the books are short and the print is large.

As the year continued and the class became more proficient, they asked me if they could have some of the books their friends were using in the regular eleventh-grade English classes. Of the anthologies we use in the regular classes they liked one in particular, *American Literature*, edited by Blankenship, Lyman, and Hill, which contains poems, plays, stories, and essays. For some time we read from this anthology, and the chief difference between the way we

handled it and the way it is handled in a regular class was that I had to do more explaining and to do it more slowly. In the long run a measure of the class' success in comprehension compared favorably with that of eleventh-grade students on the average.

As the school term drew to a close, it was surprisingly gratifying to me when the members of the class asked me to give them things that I thought they might need the following term. It certainly is not usual for pupils to plan at the end of one year for the next. Of all things, they requested diagramming and analyzing sentences. We studied nouns, verbs, and pronouns at their request.

In this phase of the work I discovered that some of the students were helping others without my suggesting it. One boy who had been very slow at the beginning of the year was a "whiz" at diagramming, and he took great delight in helping others who did not know how. Early in the term I noticed another boy who had much difficulty with reading was reading aloud from an article to a girl who also was having great difficulty. She, in turn, read to him. This convinced me that slow learners in a small homogeneous group are just as capable of helping one another as pupils of an average class. It should be added, however, that cooperative learning can be done more effectively when the physical arrangements of the classroom are arranged to promote it.

At the beginning I did not intend to require a term paper, which is usually expected of eleventh-grade pupils, but several of this special group asked if they might write them, and so they did. Of course, this was not exacted of all. A hard and fast standard of achievement is not advisable for pupils in the special class. As a matter of fact, in many learning areas it is questionable to have set standards for anyone. Each person has his own weaknesses and his strengths, and it is the purpose of instruction and learning in any class to provide

means through which each one can improve himself without regard for any artificial standard which may be set for the group. I soon discovered that adherence to this principle is an absolute requirement for teaching a class of slow learners. Any attempt to hold all to one standard will defeat the purpose of individual growth.

To improve the listening of the group, recordings were used. One interesting experience grew out of having the pupils listen to three musical recordings—one classical, one jazz, and one popular romantic—and then write briefly about which record they preferred and why, and how they felt as they listened. Later, recordings of *The Man Without a Country* and *Ballad for Americans* were well received, especially the latter. *Oliver Twist*, with Basil Rathbone as narrator and in the part of Fagin, had to be given twice to enable the students to understand better the British accent and the story, but after the repetition they asked questions about the story, which they obviously enjoyed.

To direct the interest of the members of the class toward critical evaluation of a radio program, we began with examination of and discussion about a series of cartoons of well-known radio stars. After the pictures had been examined, I asked which programs produced by these stars the pupils found interesting. Individual reactions, of course, were diverse, but one that appeared to have much favor was "The Big Story," because, as the children said, it has to do with the average, everyday folks like themselves and shows life in America. Another was "Cavalcade of America" because of the interesting way it tells the history of our country. After extended discussion, the pupils listed the programs to which they usually listen, and it was interesting to discover how varied were their choices. Instead of favoring only mysteries, soap operas, and cops-and-robbers types of programs, they seemed to enjoy all sorts. This reminded me that these children in the spe-

cial class are quite representative of the average people all over the country, and, undoubtedly, the language-arts needs of average people must be met.

Friendly essays and letters were written. It was usually necessary that each one be done over at least once for improvement. Very early in the term I discovered that a slow student does not mind doing things over when he sees results from the repetition. Essays on such topics as "What Friendship Means to Me" or "If I Had a Hundred Dollars" brought many novel ideas from the children and some information about themselves and their family life which would not ordinarily have been discovered in class discussion. Letters ordering a subscription to *Coronet*, congratulating graduates, and giving sympathy to the teacher during an extended illness also brought good results.

One of the most interesting experiences of the year grew out of an attempt we made to read as a group—something like choral reading. After I had explained *The Ballad of the Oysterman* they tried to read it together orally. The first attempts were terrible. Each pupil began reading and continued to read as if there were no one reading but himself. The result was much like the chatter in an audience before the opening of a public meeting. Over and over we tried with little success. Then one pupil suggested that the girls read together—there were eight of them in the class—and that helped somewhat. Then the girls said they would like to hear the boys—all fourteen of them—and they did better. We then asked three pupils to take the parts of the oysterman, the father, and the daughter, with the other members of the class reading the remainder of the poem. By this time the group reading of the poem had improved. Obviously, these children were not accustomed to working with a group, probably because their reading difficulties had given them little opportunity heretofore in sharing in group activity.

To add to the appreciation of literature we read one-act plays such as *Sham* by Frank G. Tompkins, *Where but in America* by Oscar M. Wolff, and *Ile* by Eugene O'Neill. The reading of these plays took longer than in a regular class because it required more explanation, which had to be done more slowly. The net results, however, compared favorably with those in a class of average pupils.

To measure the growth of the class in reading ability, they were given Form 2 of the Traxler Silent Reading Test near the end of the term. Results were gratifying. The median of the class in reading ability had risen from grade six at the beginning to grade nine. The improvement of individual pupils was seen to be even more gratifying. The boy who did the good diagramming increased his total score from 28 in September to 77 in May, and one girl also had improved her total score from 39 in the beginning to 75 at the end. She told me one day that her mother thinks she speaks more plainly and more sensibly since she has been a member of this special class for the year.

Although the gratifying improvement of these children in reading was a source of great satisfaction, the progress they had made in their social adjustment, which cannot be measured by raw scores on a standardized test but can be estimated in terms of satisfaction in school and an obvious and evident growing adequacy, was far more satisfying.

Probably the most interesting and gratifying example of improvement in social adjustment was Agnes, whom I have previously mentioned. In September she entered the class—a very quiet, brown-eyed girl of average appearance and definitely an introvert. She seldom spoke to anyone, but she was not sullen or sulky—just nontalkative. Her score at the beginning in the Silent Reading Test was 33, the second lowest in the class. She gave no answers to the story comprehension questions; she understood five

words out of fifty; she scored 8 on the paragraph questions. For weeks she continued to say very little to me or to her fellow classmates, but little by little she would smile quietly to me as I stood by my door before class, and little by little she would talk to the other children. I noticed, however, that she was always attentive to what I had to say, and she would do written work as well as she could and not too badly. When she was asked to speak to the class about something she had read, she did it reluctantly and with much hesitation.

As the year progressed, I noticed that she spoke when she was spoken to, and so I engaged her in conversation when she came into the classroom. As we sat around in informal talk she would listen and enter into the conversation only when directly addressed. By the end of the year, she had made short informal talks, with less reluctance, before the class at least twice during the many periods devoted to this phase of the work. She was now able to get her ideas across to her fellow classmates successfully.

One day when we were reminiscing about the experiences we had had in other years in school and at home, with the pupils telling how they fell out of trees or from a sled or got lost, Agnes told of an experience she had had. When we had the reading test at the end of the term, her scores had improved very little in spite of the fact that she had meticulously carried out every assignment and had done a term paper about a visit to a deaconess' home in Philadelphia. It appeared that her experience in the class had done her little good.

But it had. She had become a member of a group and had learned to talk to an adult and to her fellows, and she had many times volunteered to do minor things for the teacher—straightening up books, collecting papers, and the like. When I found out toward the end of the year that she makes and sells rag dolls, that she had of her own accord bought a pattern, materials, and cotton to make the first doll, and had con-

tinued to make the dolls and the clothes they wear in a manner attractive enough to sell, I realized that the Silent Reading Test measured only her reading and not her total ability. In other words, she is good enough manually and will probably get along satisfactorily as a citizen of the community, whether it be as a homemaker or as an employed worker.

Since the language arts are social, the knowledge of good English is of little value if one cannot use it to communicate one's thoughts to another, and the change in Agnes demonstrates, it seems to me, that what many slow learners need is the opportunity to learn to talk to other members of a group and to listen to what they have to say.

In spite of the poor verbal learning ability of these pupils, I discovered that most of them do something worthwhile outside of school. One boy raises and sells rabbits, and he knows about their diet and diseases and treatment. Another takes care of lawns and gardens and earned enough that he was able to buy a bedroom suite of his own. One girl of southern European origin is interested in dramatics. She had been assisting in the preparation of radio scripts and directing teen-age programs for some time. The men at the broadcasting station tell me she is a hard worker, does well, and is quite dependable, although she is not at all successful in such school subjects as mathematics, biology, and history.

Another very shy girl makes all of her own clothes and makes them beautifully. One boy, he of the good diagrams, helps his father every night in transporting mail from the post office to the trains. Two boys play in an orchestra and are earning union wages. One works in a haberdashery as a stock boy and sometimes is a salesman. Still another has a job in an amusement park.

All must talk to their customers, friends, and relatives, just as the boys and girls of higher ability.

It cannot be emphasized too much that one of the most important outcomes of the experience these children have had in a class where we have been attempting to meet their needs is the progress they have made socially. As I have indicated before, most of them entered the class poorly equipped in some way and accustomed to being relegated to failure or near-failure. Their assignment to large classes of quicker and brighter pupils had not given them an opportunity to gain the self-confidence they needed to become useful citizens. As members of a small class of young people, all handicapped, they could learn to cope successfully in the sympathetic company of boys and girls just like themselves.

It may be said that when slow learners leave or finish school, they must meet the competition offered by the brilliant and the average, that in the workaday world they cannot live and transact business with people of their own kind exclusively. I believe, however, that this kind of class provides such children a kind of breather—an opportunity to catch up. When one has a diseased lung, the lung is collapsed to give it a chance to heal itself. When the body is sick and feverish, sometimes a sedative is administered to give the body a chance to recover. The class I have been describing is somewhat similar in its treatment for the confused and bewildered slow learner. I feel now that I can recommend such classes. Of course, just as the physician hopes that the collapsed lung will heal and the feverish body will recover, I hope that this experience will encourage the continuance of the kind of school experience we have attempted to provide for the slow learners.



In Albion, Michigan, a social-science class held an essay contest entitled, "Who Is a True American?" A member of the class, a 14-year-old full-blooded Ottawa Indian, wrote just two words: "I am."—*High Points*.

THE GIFTED:

*The Colfax partial
segregation plan*

Society's Neglected Assets

By

HEDWIG O. PREGLER

A TRULY democratic system of education can exist only when every group of children has an opportunity to develop to the fullest extent of capacity. This philosophy has become accepted by all who are interested in the handicapped child, the child who lacks the gifts of the average. Since democracy prides itself in the honest belief that it provides the greatest good for the greatest number, let us consider who would benefit if education made special provisions for those at the other end of the ladder—the mentally gifted.

In business more money is invested where the returns will be greater, where there is less chance of loss or risk. It is odd that in our gifted children, who show such possibility of positive returns to society, so very little is invested. The superior child is an asset in a democratic society that we cannot neglect any longer. Too long has the term "undemocratic" been used as a smoke screen for neglect. If there were an equal opportunity for all or if at least the same opportunity were offered at the top of the ladder as at the bottom, what strides ahead, what riches our whole society might reap!

What is the fear that keeps educators from giving gifted children an opportunity commensurate with their ability? There was no fear in our early history. Education was for those who could learn. High schools were for those who had mastered the elementary subjects.

With the influx of children into our secondary schools during the twenties and thirties, our philosophy of education had to change. Special provisions for the slow

learner, who because of his inability blocked the wheels of education, were soon made. Faced with the problem of educating everyman's child and finding not all of these children able to reach the standards set for those who entered the high school as preparatory school for college, teachers had to lower standards. Keeping this slow-moving group of children in school and gearing education down to their level and interests have robbed the gifted child of the opportunities that once were his. The philosophy that made provisions for the lower group in the name of democracy discriminated against the gifted on the same basis.

Assuming then that some provision should be made for the gifted, let us consider what would be most beneficial.

Keeping the gifted child in a regular class is detrimental to his ambition. He is no longer stimulated. He finds himself in classes where mentally he is alone. There is no discussion on his mental level that would develop his thinking. If he says too much about what he knows, he is laughed at by the group, who think him a mental snob. Being bright, he soon learns that to be popular he must turn his ability into wit so as to amuse the class at its level. He becomes unbearable to the teacher and to the rest of the class who at first fostered his cleverness.

One of the most frequent criticisms of segregated classes is that the children who are selected for them become snobbish. Any child with or without high intelligence can develop this unpleasant attitude toward

others. In a segregated group where children have to recognize that there are younger children who know as much and frequently more than they, they are more likely to develop humility.

Tony, a dark-eyed little lad who had been accelerated in school, was the smallest one in his class. He was proud of it because Mother, Aunt, and other relatives, not forgetting Daddy, were proud of "the little man." Tony was bright. He was clever. Soon he became what the children termed "smart." It wasn't long before he lost many friends in his neighborhood. This was excused at home on the basis of his lack of prowess and his small stature. Then school friends fell off. This, of course, was because of jealousy. Later his teachers didn't appreciate him. Nothing in the picture was Tony's fault until he became unbearable at home. Tragedy followed. Once completely blameless in the eyes of those he wanted most to impress, Tony now carried the complete blame.

Tony was a sad case when he was at last admitted to a class for gifted children. His adjustment was very slow and careful guidance was necessary before Tony won back his self respect and that of his friends and family.

A situation wherein children are mentally challenged by their peers at every turn does not nurture egotism. Snobbishness is much more likely to develop in a classroom where they are grouped with others their own age whom they continually outsmart, or when they have been accelerated to an older group in which they again know all the answers. It would be impossible to accelerate gifted children to those classes where they would meet their mental age level without causing very serious social and emotional maladjustment.

True, as these children go to a special class or workshop, the others know that they are bright and that for that reason they are segregated, but certainly they do not know how bright they are. The gifted

group are less irritating than they would be if they were in the regular classes, continually answering all the questions that the average children would like an opportunity to try. As for keeping brightness a secret, that is impossible. Everyone knows when he knows; unfortunately he who doesn't know is not always aware of his deficiency.

Just why exceptional mental ability is so often resented is a mystery. We acclaim and rejoice with a personal pride when a neighborhood child is a musician, a singer, or an artist. It is only brains that we resent. The mentally gifted child must be trained to accept this fact. If he wants to be happy and accepted by the group he must have a more pleasing personality than the child of average ability. Frequently he must hide his talents until he is challenged.

Guidance of mental attitudes and training in social acceptability can best be done with these children when they are in a group. Individual conferences are not nearly as helpful as group work in this field. A group of gifted children working together can more easily recognize their faults when they are pointed out by their friends than when an adult alone speaks of them. Obviously this requires a segregated group.

Segregated classes give gifted children an opportunity to work with their mental peers. As advocates of acceleration have frequently indicated, in the academic subjects chronological age is not important. Thus the chronological age span in these fields can be two or more years with no harm to the child. Knowledge is respected by these children regardless of the age of the child who possesses it. Mental accomplishments are admired and achievement becomes the aim of the entire class.

Enriching the program of the gifted child is the accepted solution to the problem of his education. The question remains as to how and where this can best be done. In the regular class enrichment is likely to

become busy work, aimless research, or a tutorial job for the bright child. This is no indictment of the teacher. In the regular class there are too many groups each of which need teaching techniques of their own.

A teacher has only so much energy to expend. If all the gifted children are grouped together in one class, the teacher can apply the same techniques to all his pupils and he becomes adjusted to these fast moving ones who not only think faster but who think differently and with greater intensity.

The segregated class for gifted children offers them opportunities for developing other abilities aside from the acquisition of knowledge. They have more opportunities for being group leaders, for doing individual research with its necessary culminating activity, event, or report which is appreciated and understood by the group. Since they are all fast workers, they can finish their work in less time. The entire class can pursue other interests. Trips can be planned with broader purposes. They can go further afield and cover wider ranges of interest. Languages can be taught, because there are enough children in the class to allow conversational experience.

Just as these children need provisions for their mental development, so their social development must be guided. They are very social and seek the companionship of others, but they need training in how to live with average children and how to respect the abilities of others and not overemphasize their own.

Isolating these children in classes where they have no contact with other children would make them self-centered and disinterested in their classmates in other groups. However, a plan of partial segregation as administered at Colfax School in Pittsburgh, Pa., gives mentally gifted children an opportunity to work with their mental peers in those subjects in which they need mental stimulation, and with their other

EDITOR'S NOTE

For the best all-around development of gifted students, both the segregated-class and the regular-class plans have drawbacks. The Colfax School has attempted to get the benefits of both types of classes for its gifted pupils through a partial-segregation plan. For mental growth, these pupils are in segregated classes; and for social growth all of their other classes are non-segregated. Miss Pregler is principal of Colfax School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

classmates in those fields where more social contacts are possible. Thus they go to our "Workshop" for academic subjects like reading, arithmetic, social subjects, and the enrichment program. During the rest of the day they return to their homeroom and regular classes for such special subjects as music, art, and physical education. This gives them an opportunity to work with average children in a situation where some of them are likely to excel and others are likely to be at a decided disadvantage. Thus the children meet on a different basis—a basis on which ability is accepted.

Segregated classes help the child to become more emotionally stable. The constant irritation of being held back for others to catch up with him is eliminated. It is remarkable how a child who has been a school problem most of his life gives up the habits that were so irritating when he is segregated in this manner.

Willard was a fighter. He fought everyone. He teased. He had to hold his own after a good recitation in class if he wanted the fellows to think well of him in the school yard. He had to show his prowess here, too. At home the older boys teased him unmercifully because he entered conversations of which they thought he should know nothing. He retaliated, of course.

Three months after his admission to the

Workshop Willard's whole attitude had changed. He no longer had to maintain his dignity in the play yard because he knew everything in class and won all the laurels. In fact he didn't win so many laurels these days. The competition in the Workshop is keener. He lost some of the cockiness with which he seemed to walk. He lost the chip which he carried on his shoulder in case someone remarked that he was a smarty.

The arrogance which so many disliked and which was his underlying difficulty slowly disappeared. He walked with a purpose. There seemed to be so much more to do than he had time to get done. His attitude at home changed. He took time to listen rather than tell the boys all he knew. One listens in the Workshop—others know surprisingly more than you.

Gifted children are not all good children. Nor are they expected to be. They are mischievous, teasing, noisy children. However, it is important for them to know when to behave and how to behave. They should be trained to have good study habits. They should be helped to develop good habits of industry: work when they work and play when they play. Perhaps one of the hardest habits for gifted children to acquire is that of listening when a fellow student is speaking. These children have so much to say that they would like to talk all of the time. It is difficult enough for them to listen in the Workshop, where the conversation is on their level; how much more difficult where the class knows much less!

The Workshop offers the mentally gifted child an opportunity to be accepted for what he is. He is respected for what he knows. He is expected to learn. Learning is the accepted thing. Standards are high, and when he aims for them he is praised and admired because others in the class are doing likewise.

The gifted child is not the sole benefactor through his segregation. The average

children in the regular classes also gain by his absence from the class. These children now have an opportunity to excel. They have opportunities to contribute to the class discussion which once were not theirs. They receive credit for answers which they had to take time to think out and which the gifted child snapped out. They have time to think out answers which they were cheated out of by the fast thinkers, who didn't need to go through the lengthy processes necessary to them. Thus they became lazy, knowing that Joyce would have the answer anyhow, and if the teacher did say, "No, Joyce, let Jane think it through," Jane's reply lost some of its zip, because down deep they knew Joyce had the answer first.

The average child in his own class has an opportunity to lead his peers. Too frequently he was a member of the committee—not the chairman—and had to follow the directions of the brighter child. The teacher believed that this was a good way to enrich the experiences of the bright child. It is a way, but this experience is much more important for the child of average ability, since that is the type of work he will, in a democracy, be most often asked to perform.

The gifted child will in all probability be serving society in the science laboratories, or in the art studios. The average children of high ability will be our political leaders of tomorrow. They will be responsible for what we do with the atom bomb after the gifted child has perfected it. Therefore it is necessary for the child of average ability to have the necessary experiences that will teach him to lead, to plan, and to execute. This is possible only when the situation in his class is a life situation where he can truly lead without interference from those who are brighter.

Teachers gain by the segregation of the gifted. Those who deal with gifted children get accustomed to working with them. They accept them and their ability without be-

lieving them to be Wunder Kinder or smart show-offs. A healthy attitude becomes apparent.

The teacher of gifted children does not fear their ability or their questions, since they do not upset the class. He can develop an honest "I don't know, let's find out" policy. Average children are a little startled when teachers don't know. Gifted children recognize the fact that authors make mistakes and that background and experience change points of view.

When the gifted child has been removed from the regular classroom the teacher is relieved of the strain of feeling he should do something for the gifted child without having time in which to get it done. Most teachers would like to enrich the experiences of the few gifted children they find in their classes if only they could get to it. The size of classes and the varying capabilities

in each group keep him from doing the fine work he might do if he had time to explore their interests, find the material, and then provide the opportunity to have a worthwhile resulting activity. The mere teaching act is not hard. It is the wearying endeavor of trying to get everything done that needs to be done in order to develop to the fullest the individuals in the class that makes teaching an always arduous task.

A program of education as inclusive as one for gifted children can be, one that promotes the best interests of the normal child and his teacher, the gifted child and his teacher, would bring greater dividends to the society that invests in their education and looks to both groups for its progress. Education of the gifted is an investment which society dares no longer neglect.



Classroom Heaven

By JACOB C. SOLOVAY

If pupils did their school work
Just every single day,
And no one was a school shirk
In any kind of way,
And no one had to borrow
His homework for the morrow,
To keep from ciphered sorrow,
Or family dismay;

If pupils all acquired
A sweet propriety,
And everyone aspired
To volunteer with glee;
And answered quizzes neatly,
Correctly and discreetly,
Alertly and completely,
With vigor and esprit;

And if they were not tardy,
Or never cut a class,
Or never were foolhardy,
Or overworked the pass;
Or did not chew confection
In subject room or section,
Or tried to beat detection
By being bold as brass;

In short, if lasses acted
Like ladies over ten;
And lads themselves contracted
The rules of gentlemen;
I would not wake up screaming,
Or raging or blaspheming—
But be content with dreaming,
And go to sleep again!

The Uneasy Problem of PARENTS' NIGHT

By
M. L. MOORE

THERE IS AN academic nightmare that teases the teaching trade at least once a year, and that is generally known as Parents' Night. Be it understood from the beginning there is no loftier an aim for us youth dealers than to promote greater understanding among parents and teachers. I'm all for it. Deep in my scholastic heart I know this one great truth: Parents and teachers should work side by side for the good of the child. What a noble thought, but alas, what a task to accomplish—for me, anyway! A problem, indeed!

As I see it, the saccharine treatment is the one most of us offer to parents who come to check on Junior. Get this picture. Fifty other parents are standing in line to greet you (the only sensation of importance you receive during the year) while you distribute the compliments on some freshman to his eager relative. It is safe to say that at least half of the other visitors are listening, for any number of reasons, to what you have to say about this Junior. Now where is the heartless teacher who is going to start upon a truthful tirade such as this: "Your young—uh—son is a likeable chap but he's a colossal fraud. He cheats in his homework; he lies about his absences; he forgets homeroom duties; he's lazy; he's fogbound four-fifths of the time."

Here the parent wants to know why Junior doesn't get an A. Why, you'd like to inquire, does the boy keep his ability such a secret? Of course, he's not a moron; he only acts like one.

Oh, but you should make him work, urges the optimistic parent. The fact that

no other earthly influence—relative, friend, or previous teacher—has been able to make the little one perform his scholastic chores never enters the visitor's mind. You, his teacher, are the eighth wonder who can even empty a rock of its sanguinary streams.

Keep after him—more advice from Junior's ancestor. What a maddening combination of words! Your days are too short; your energy is too limited; and your other duties are too consuming for you to follow that bit of advice. Ah, but you are a teacher, a strange breed of humanity that can perform the impossible. Some parents will even tell you all this, and if you're the gullible type (like me) you will smile and thank Mr. America for giving you permission to scold and browbeat the little imp. Actually your tongue is itching to say, "Why don't you

EDITOR'S NOTE

Apparently Parents' Night is an occasion upon which many a teacher is torn between the answers he'd like to make to some parents, and the answers he knows he'd jolly well better make. It's true that the event calls for diplomacy in large quantities. But long-suffering teachers have been trained in diplomacy since the day they got their first jobs. Parents' Night, perhaps, is when we take our annual tests in the subject. Miss Moore teaches in Bridgewater, Mass., Junior High School.

do it yourself—if you can? You have only one. I have 200.”

But you never pronounce the complete truth. Those glittering omissions come from a sympathetic nature, I suppose. You are a firm believer in the say-something-nice policy, so you go merrily along telling par-

ent after parent the sugary set of words they expect to hear. Call it spineless character or inability to judge students, but I'm equally guilty of these soft, sweet stories when I yearn to cry out the truth. Therefore, my problem, Mr. Anthony, is how am I going to be tender yet truthful?



* * TRICKS of the TRADE * *

By TED GORDON

FOUR-WAY TEST—In giving out assignments, check your effectiveness by means of the “Four-Way Test,” which consists of asking yourself: (1) WHEN is it to be completed? (2) WHAT is to be done? (3) How is it to be done? (4) WHY is it to be done?—*Edward C. Estabrook in Upgrading Instruction, American Technical Society.*

SEATING NOT REPEATING—When you seat students alphabetically (if you have to), work the alphabet in reverse so that Y's and Z's will be in the first row for a change.—*O. M. Anderson, graduate student, School of Education, University of Southern California.*

CLEARLY DEFINED AIM—It is helpful to pupils and teacher to have the aim of the



EDITOR'S NOTE: *Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.*

lesson written on the blackboard at the beginning of each period. In the latter part of the period the class should re-consider the aim, to see to what extent they have achieved it. An excellent summary is thus obtained, and teacher and class both know whether the lesson has been successful.—*Thomas E. Robinson, Supt. of Schools, Trenton, N.J.*

FLOWER BOWER—Rather than face the necessity of picking fresh flowers, which are not always in bloom, place in a corner of the room on a table or cabinet, pine cones, evergreen branches, or gourds. They make an ever-present spot of color and loveliness. A straw basket overflowing with artificial branches is another inexpensive but effective method.—*Lucy Asadoorian, Franklin High School, Los Angeles, Calif.*

SIGN SENSE—A department of physical education is saved a lot of time and questions by having each teacher's name posted on inter-changeable signs reading “DRESS” or “DO NOT DRESS,” “SHOES AND SOCKS,” or with similar changing requirements. These may be hung below each teacher's name so that students know immediately what the procedure for the period is.—*Geraldine Schwaderer, John Muir Junior High School, Los Angeles, Calif.*

Some Psychological Bases for Improving READING

By
CHARLES W. SAALE

READING is not a subject-matter—it has no content. We must read science, social science, literature, chemistry, etc. Neither can reading be taught in isolation of context. This indicates that every teacher, whether in the public school or college, must be a teacher of reading.

High-school and college teachers have no legitimate right to hold the primary and elementary teachers responsible for teaching the skill and abilities necessary to read at the higher academic levels. The fact that reading difficulties occur at the high-school and college levels does not mean that reading was necessarily poorly taught in the primary grades.

College students' failure to understand, let us say, Toynbee, or Korzybski, may be due to a lack of apperceptive background rather than a lack of knowledge of how to read. An appropriate apperceptive mass is essential to understanding of anything. Reading at the higher levels is specific to subject-matter areas. A student who is adept in understanding literature may have difficulty comprehending chemistry or physics. Research affirms this fact. Hall and Robinson¹ obtained correlations of .17 between comprehension scores in fiction and those in history, .44 between history and arts, and .96 between Canadian history and Russian history. Undoubtedly, numerous students who have been diagnosed as remedial cases may have had a limited apperceptive mass.

We must remind ourselves periodically that reading, thinking, and studying are

three aspects of the same process—learning. When one factor is improved the others are improved; they are interdependent. Many students who find the going too difficult to remain in school might be salvaged if they were taught how to read and study specific subjects. This is a definite responsibility of every teacher regardless of the academic level.

Since reading is a perceptual process, and the *sine qua non* of reading is meaning or understanding, we need to consider how meaning is attained. All language is symbolic, spoken or written, but the symbols convey no meaning by themselves. They can only stimulate the reader to construct the meaning out of his materials of experience and background.² If what we are reading is familiar, we can construct the meaning rather easily. But if the material is complex and new, it is a considerably more difficult task.

Meanings are related to printed symbols in the same way they are related to the spoken symbols. Since it is axiomatic that the printed symbol can only stimulate the reader to construct meaning for himself, it follows that the student must take something to the printed page if he is to understand the material.

This can be demonstrated by the following procedure. Here are three words—Brazil, China, and footlambert. Pronounce these three words to a group of adults or children—preferably adults. Ask each member of the group to state orally what re-

¹ P. Hall and F. P. Robinson, "Studies in Higher Level Reading Skills," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1941, Vol. 231, pp. 241-252.

² Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, New York: Charles C. Scribner's Sons, 1937.

sponse came to his mind. Other things being equal, you will possibly discover as many different responses as there are members in your group. Similarly, you may discover that all or some members of the group have no response for "footlambert."

Interesting, isn't it? Why? The theory of apperception or apperceptive mass should be self-explanatory. This no-response to printed symbols happens every day to students. Especially is this true when the material being read is remote and difficult. This signifies the importance of developing the student's background prior to his studying any problems or topic.

Spread of Reading Abilities: Wide ranges of reading abilities are found at every school level. The range is often from five to seven grades. Good teaching will increase individual abilities, if we mean by good teaching that each individual is allowed to develop to his capacity.

Above the primary grades, special grouping is not always the best social policy. The purpose of the curriculum is sociological. One procedure that has found merit in several experimental schools allows for the wide range of abilities by having the curriculum organized around topics or problems. Instructional materials are then supplied commensurate with the abilities of the students. If teachers are interested in obtaining a supply of materials commensurate with the abilities of the pupils, they must cease requisitioning complete sets of series, and submit orders for several references from an assortment of references. The spread of individual abilities will always be with us, and in consequence we must allow for individual differences in the thoroughness and depth of knowledge attained.

The Assignment and Reading: Professor Ernest Horn says that no other single aspect of instruction makes as great a contribution to the improvement of reading as does a well-planned and organized assignment. An assignment of the problem-solving nature is

concomitant with the scientific method of thinking. Learning does not begin without a problem. The problem guides the activity of the student; it is the purpose for the thinking, and it develops motives.

The students should share in planning the assignment, while the teacher directs the pupils in their planning and suggests important points that may otherwise be forgotten. The students should see that the problem is the end; the references, sources, films, etc., are the means to the end. An assignment should provide tasks commensurate with individual abilities of the students. The part that a particular student may contribute to the completion of the assignment should depend upon his talents. This can be done best by providing instructional materials of varying levels of difficulty.

Collateral Readings: Collateral readings are synonymous with extensive reading and studying. There need be no argument against the value of extensive reading in improving comprehension. Research has always supported this type of reading over intensive reading. Students who do their reading from a variety of references and sources are more apt to evolve with a mature and reliable understanding of some problem.

A mature idea or concept of anything is

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Saale writes: "We may have lost sight of the fact that the sine qua non of reading is meaning or understanding, and may have been stressing mere word-calling too much. This article endeavors to reenforce and increase our understanding of several important psychological factors that affect reading." The author is chairman of the Division of Educational Psychology, Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Wash.

attained by breadth of experience. A breadth of experience guards against over-generalization. Enrichment of experience aids learning. The instructor must not expect the student to master any problem by reading, rereading and rereading a single reference. The student must do as the author did—read and study extensively.

Speed in Reading: Speed by itself is ill-advised. Speed is relative to the purpose of the reader. Reading takes time—time for the student to clarify, evaluate, select, and organize his ideas as he reads. Speed is determined by the familiarity of the material, complexity of the material, practice in silent reading, and intelligence.

Fiction is read with greater speed than is chemistry. In the past we may have been too zealously interested in speed without direct-

ing enough attention to comprehension. The rate commonly taken from standardized tests may be too high; it may represent the rate at which a student can read under pressure, rather than his natural rate. Speed of reading is determined by how fast the mind can assimilate ideas rather than by the rate at which visual impressions are received and transferred to the brain. The rate at which the mind can assimilate new ideas is dependent upon our apperceptive masses, and this is just the thing one cannot discover about a student by giving him a standardized test.

In conclusion, we can materially assist the students in their reading by including material that is not as remote as our present curriculum material, and by reducing the amount that is to be taught.



Recently They Said:

Dominated by Men

The present physical-education program is more or less dominated by men. Women should have a voice in plans, policies, and suggestions for the program. Administrators can continue to establish policies and supervise the program, but they should be attentive to the women in it. The girls' program should not be secondary to that of the boys, but equal in importance. The general theme of a healthy girl should be as important as that of a healthy and robust boy.—TRAVIS STOVALL in *New Mexico School Review*.

Students' Experimental Fund

Each college and high school should set aside annually a certain sum for the student council to spend in trying out some idea which it considers is most likely to benefit the school and community. The idea must be new to the community, student-selected, and student-managed and developed. . . .

Any school administrator can name many worthwhile student-sponsored activities that have brought credit to school and community—such as, surveys of needed changes in city planning; problems of health, sanitation, and recreation; juvenile delinquency; minority group cooperation; provisions for

underprivileged groups; and community beautification. Such activities should be encouraged by an experimental fund which may be invested in new ventures.—ELIZABETH PILANT in *School Activities*.

Much Ado About Marks

The teacher's mark! Kids cheat for it, sweat for it, copy for it; parents discuss it, get mad about it, apologize for it or brag about it; teachers live with it, for better or worse, day and night. Whether the mark should have this importance is another thing; the point is, there is no denying its significance.

Furthermore, it seems obvious that an educational firecracker like this should be carefully handled. No teacher dares build a consistent record of unfairness, or carelessness, or unpredictability in the handling of marks. Teachers recognize this. Many of them develop elaborate schemes to guard against such weaknesses. They learn about normal curves and standard deviations in an effort to be scientific. Yet the most conscientious of them are influenced by subjective judgments, by their own physical condition, by the time of day at which the evaluation is made, by the influence of pupil personality, by pressures of one kind or another from parents, or principals, or fellow-teachers.—DEAN LOBAUGH in *School Science and Mathematics*.

GROUP DYNAMICS:

A Junior-High Class Experiments

By

WALTER HEISLER, MARION SMEDLING, and CLYDE M. CAMPBELL

TEACHING junior-high-school pupils basic skills in group dynamics is not as involved a procedure as might appear at first glance. Pupils in the seventh grade can adjust, with comparative ease, to patterns of interaction; they are attracted to group processes, and from our simple experiment show tangible evidence of enjoying them.

Developing the art of group participation calls for coordination of previous habits of behavior more than teaching new patterns of conduct. Even pupils at thirteen years of age seem to have a natural adaptation for working in groups, trying to think together to solve problems that are of mutual concern.

We feel this statement is true from our experiment that was carried on at East Lansing High School. The setting was a junior-high-school core-curriculum class taught by Miss Marion Smedling. The experiment was undertaken to answer three questions: (1) Can group processes be taught to seventh-grade pupils? (2) Is it an easy or difficult task to accomplish? (3) Can the procedure when used be effective in results?

(A graduate student, Mr. Walter Heisler, put the program into action. Mr. Heisler from the first word held the attention of the class with his plain talk and catchy illustrations. He began his presentation by emphasizing the cooperative aspects of group work—children thinking, talking, and working together toward a common end. To reach the pupils, he drew an analogy between football and group-discussion: just as in football, where each member is responsible for a particular part

in a play, so in group discussion is each member accountable for responses that further the purposes of the group as a whole.

GROUP ACTION

This simple language approach combined with familiar illustrations soon generated sufficient pupil interest to move the group into action. The students were earnestly desirous of trying their skill in group thinking. Being a member of an intellectual team incited a new kind of enthusiasm for academic work.

Complying with their wishes, the teacher divided the class into three sections arranged in circles in distant corners of the room.

Previously the class had selected as a subject for discussion, the Palestine Problem, a topic chosen from their *Scholastic Magazine*. The leader realized the topic was not appropriate but, at this point, he felt the students also should discover that some subjects are more suitable than others for group activity. Results were as expected. The pupils learned that discussion soon lagged because of (1) lack of information on the subject; (2) no real feel for the topic; (3) limited ability in discussion techniques.

Permitting the pupils boldly to strike out on a subject of their own choosing was a method used designedly. The leader wanted them to develop a desire for study and instruction in group activity. In this respect, the outcome was satisfying. The pupils expressed the desire to practice and to improve their discussion techniques. They felt their primary weaknesses were lack of suffi-

cient reading on the subject, poor organization, and talking in an indistinct manner.

There was still another startling revelation to the leader, and that was the pupils' concept of discussion. Seventh-grade children place discussion in the pattern of a class-recitation, where one pupil asks the questions and the other children supply the answers. Exploring ideas by adding to and evaluating the thoughts of others, as a classroom procedure, is a new concept for pupils of this age. This is in sharp contrast to playground activity where there is much evidence of planning and discussion. In spite of the excellent democratic practices, taught by the teacher since the opening of the school year, the children still seemed to revert back to the recitation type of learning when they formed into groups to explore academic problems. The results of this experiment seem clearly to indicate that fundamental skills of group thinking have not been learned by seventh-grade pupils.

STUDY OF GROUP DISCUSSION

To improve discussion techniques, *Making Group Discussion Meetings Click*, published by the Extension Service of Michigan State College, and *Understanding Through Discussion*, published by the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan, were placed in the hands of each student for careful study. As a further means of setting discussion techniques in the mind, the pupils were asked to list and to classify the strong and weak points of their fellow participants. From these strong and weak points as listed, the leader prepared a paper entitled "Undesirable Types in Group Discussion."

Then as a next step, selected pupils were asked to give an unrehearsed drama of poor participants as they conceived them. The drama of poor participants brought forth a very favorable response from students. They enjoyed the program so much they requested another drama that would

portray the good points of discussion. The sketch on the good points was a failure. It was poor drama—in fact, a poor presentation.

The pupils in evaluating the program decided that their fellow students were neither well prepared nor sincerely interested in the roles they were playing. The leader, the teacher, and the consultant also were somewhat discouraged, but later developments proved the failure to be a desirable outcome. If the pupils had had even fair success with their portrayal of good discussion, they might have felt they had all the answers and might have been in a very poor mood for future classroom instruction. Failure in this instance proved to be a strong source of motivation. The students realized that good discussion requires vigilance and constant attention to small details.

A SOCIOGRAM AND DISCUSSION

To discover leaders and close applications, a sociogram was made of the class. From this sociogram new groups were formed around natural leaders as selected by individual pupils. After further study of group processes the students were ready once more to try their skill with simple interesting topics.

The succeeding discussions on automobiles, funny books, child and parent friendships, brother and sister friendship, boy and girl friendship, were far more successful in results. The librarian had provided timely reading material for study; pupils had been better prepared for group thinking; and the students had selected subjects that were meaningful to them. Progress definitely had been achieved. The pupils had become deeply interested in the interactive process of thinking and working together.

UNREHEARSED SOCIODRAMAS

The exchange of ideas on such intimate topics as friendship revealed as a by-product

many personal problems—problems that had not been disclosed by previous classroom recitations. To give the pupils a better understanding of their problems, they were asked to participate in unrehearsed sociodramas. Playing a role in sociodramas caused not only the participants but also other members of the class to see the many facets in group relationships.

Although the sociodramas were unrehearsed, nevertheless, the students were advised to do reading on the subjects. It should be mentioned here that every effort was made to correlate study and activity. In fact, one primary purpose of the experiment was to improve study and learning through individual and group experiences.

There were eight unrehearsed dramas in all. Here are two typical examples:

First Character

Your boy friend and you have made a date to go to the afternoon show on Saturday. It seems that your brother who is two years younger always wants to tag along with you. Little brother is a lot of trouble and the boys tease you about being his nursemaid. You feel you are not asked to play many times because of your little brother. You have decided you won't take your brother with you Saturday. Convince your mother.

Second Character

You are the mother of several children. The only way you can get away from the house is to have your older son look after your younger son. He objects to this responsibility. You have to do your shopping on Saturday afternoon. If your older son leaves on Saturday afternoon he must take his younger brother with him. You have just overheard your older son making plans to go to a show on Saturday afternoon and you know that he will not want to take his little brother with him. What should you say?

The last stage in developing the experiment was student evaluation. The pupils were asked these questions, to which they were requested to give their frank replies:

1. Do you think that learning to discuss ideas in a group is important?
2. How do you intend to act in the future in group discussion?

EDITOR'S NOTE

Group processes, such as group discussions and sociodramas, can be used effectively even in seventh-grade classes, according to the results of the experiment reported here. Mr. Heisler, who conducted the experiment, is superintendent of schools in Kingsley, Mich. Miss Smedling, who cooperated in the project, teaches in East Lansing, Mich., High School. Dr. Campbell is associate professor of education in Michigan State College at East Lansing.

3. What did you learn from the group discussion?
4. How can your leader of group discussion improve his teaching of the subject?

Here are typical replies received. The wording of the sentences is as students submitted them. There was considerable repetition of ideas, as various pupils expressed the same thoughts in different language.

Do You Think That Learning to Discuss Ideas in a Group Is Important?

1. I do think it is important to know how to discuss ideas in a group because all through your life you will be in discussions.
2. I think it is very important to know about a discussion because you have to know something about it to say anything about it.
3. Yes, I think it is important, because it will be important to you in future years.
4. Yes, I think it is important to discuss things in a group, because it is nice to know all the important things you talk about in your discussion. When you grow up, you can give your children important ideas about a discussion and how to start one.
5. You should know how to discuss things because other people in the group would like to know your opinion. You would also like to know other people's opinions.
6. I think it is important to know how to discuss things in a group because it brings up different ideas and helps you learn things that are important.

7. I think it is very important that we know how to discuss things in a group because it is the best way to decide a problem.

How Do You Intend to Act in the Future in Group Discussion?

1. I intend to read up on the subject and be prepared to ask and answer some questions.

2. In the future I am going to try to look up things to discuss, and get in the discussions and try my best to improve myself.

3. I intend to participate correctly by helping to get the group going and by putting in good answers and questions.

4. I intend to be helpful to the group and to be helpful to the other person in the discussion.

5. In the future I intend to have something to say and to say it, not be afraid to speak, and to take any office in which the group thinks I could act.

6. I intend to help keep the group discussion going and to know something about the subject beforehand; to know what I want to say and how to say it.

7. I think that in the future I will know what a group discussion is like and how it is run.

8. To know more about the topic which is being discussed.

9. I intend to speak clearly at all times, not interrupt people when they are talking, and not yell at anybody when they are talking.

What Did You Learn from Our Group Discussion?

1. In our group discussions I've learned what a discussion is, and I learned a lot about the themes we had, especially about the Palestine problem.

2. I have learned to control myself in a discussion and also to study on the topic.

3. I have learned how to have a discussion and what you have to do before you have one. I learned that if you want a better discussion and you know what the topic is, that you should read up on it.

4. I have learned from group discussions that each person should do his or her part to keep the discussion going and that we should pick a good subject to make the discussion interesting.

5. I have learned how to organize and prepare for a discussion and the things not to do, such as sitting around and not saying anything.

6. From group discussion I learned the bad points and the good points, and how to discuss things far better than I used to.

How Can Your Leader of Group Discussions Improve His Teaching of the Subject?

1. I think you have done all you could to teach

our class how to discuss properly and that you have really taught us something about discussion.

2. I think you have done very well in teaching us group discussion. I hope you can prove to those people that seventh grade children can discuss. I hope that you can come back and tell us some more about group discussion.

3. If you ever teach another seventh grade group, don't ever change your method. I have enjoyed you and your discussions very much. You did a wonderful job. You made the discussions so that they were not so boring.

4. I think you do a wonderful job, Mr. Heisler, I think you're wonderful.

5. If you ever teach a seventh grade, don't ever be any different than you were with us. I like the way you divided us into groups. I really like the acts and skits we had.

6. I think that you did a great job and I don't know what you could do to improve it.

7. You can improve your teaching by making some of the important discussion yourself and not asking us about it.

8. One way you could improve discussion is to have a topic everyone is interested in.

9. You can improve your teaching when a group gets in a rut or has nothing to say by helping them out, but I think you did a very good job of teaching.

10. I think that you could improve our group discussion by giving more ideas yourself.

IN RETROSPECT

If the fate of democracy is dependent on the use and improvement of group processes, then the directors of this experiment are assured that the processes can be taught successfully as early as the seventh grade. There is just reason to believe that if more periods had been spent on the project the results would have been even more fruitful. Eight lessons require merely a small portion of time that profitably can be devoted to such cooperative practice in a public-school course offering.

Group discussion and sociodrama are truly effective means of stimulating pupils to greater achievement in classroom work. It is our opinion that such techniques are significant ways of furthering desirable objectives in a democratic society.

CRITICAL THINKING:

Geometry classes use radio programs

By KENNETH B. HENDERSON and MARIAN P. FULTON

FEW MATHEMATICS teachers are willing to deny that one of the purposes of high school geometry should be to teach students how to think critically. The pressing need is for appropriate teaching materials and student experiences to implement this purpose. Without this implementation (how to do it) the avowed purpose becomes little more than a pious hope.

One way of approaching the problem of securing "stuff for the troops" is to consider the kinds of activities in which high-school students engage when they have free choice. We might as well capitalize on the interest that causes them to select these particular activities.

Studies of how adolescents use their leisure time always discover that these young people spend a lot of time listening to the radio. A recent study of this kind, for example, is "Urban Teen-Agers as Radio Listeners and Customers" by the Gilbert Youth Research Organization.¹ According to this survey "About 64% of both boys and girls have radios of their own and listen to them devotedly, particularly between 6:30 and 7:30 any night in the week."²

This age group also likes the radio programs supposedly designed for the adults. The overall favorite is CBS's Lux Radio Theatre. The popularity of the various shows ranges widely with the age and sex groups, the boys favoring the comedy shows and the girls favoring popular music. These surveys have shown that the children are extremely responsive to commercials, and feel that loyalty to a show means loyalty to a product.

In thinking about how geometry teachers might utilize the experiences of students as they listen to the radio, we decided to define "thinking critically" in terms of behavior. In other words, what does a person *do* who thinks critically? Once such a definition is made we had a notion we could select things for the students to do as they listened to the radio.

We were guided in our behavioral definition of critical thinking by several investigations. The following are the behaviors associated with "thinking critically." Following each are suggestions of how a geometry teacher can use radio programs for learning experiences designed to help realize these behaviors.

1. *The person who thinks critically identifies the words and phrases upon whose meaning the whole argument (question, issue, discussion) depends.* Slavish following of the geometry textbook does not lend itself to demonstrating this principle. But think of the occasions in geometry classes in which a student defines a term incorrectly and yet reasons logically from this changed definition. It is then the teacher can point out that conclusions depend on the meaning of the terms used and that communication, both in geometry and in everyday thinking, demands that minds meet in the meanings of the symbols used.

Abundant transfer material can be found in radio programs. One of the bases of disagreement in the series of radio discussions on the subject, "Should Communists Be Allowed to Teach in Our Schools?" was the differing definitions of what a Communist is. The geometry teacher could ascertain in advance the subjects of the various

¹ Reported in *Newsweek*, May 9, 1949, p. 57.

² *Ibid.*

radio forums. Where it appeared that a problem of semantics would be involved, he could direct his students to jot down those terms or phrases upon whose meaning the discussion rested. These, then, are grist for the mill in class the following day.

Students might be invited to listen to Henry J. Taylor and catch such weasel-words as "fair margin of profit." They could then be asked: "How might the National Association of Manufacturers define 'fair margin of profit'?" "How might the CIO define this term?" "Are some people 'taken in' by the use of such an ambiguous term which appears to say something but in actuality says nothing?" "Why is it that we think more clearly about geometry than about social issues?"

Students might be asked to listen carefully to the commercials to pick up examples of glittering generalities like "seasonized gasoline," "the national joy smoke," "lifeized clothes," "the Lucky level," and "an Oxydol sparkle." When the class meets the next day, various students can be asked what these terms mean to them. Their answers will demonstrate the fuzziness of these terms. They may then be asked why, if such terms are so ambiguous, do advertisers continue to use them.

This should lead into a consideration of emotionally-toned words and the fact that to persuade a person at the practical level we trade both on his rational being and his emotional make-up. Perhaps it is not too vain a hope that such discussion would produce students who are less swayed by such word-happy tootling on the flute of language.

Finally, students can be asked to report examples of discussions and speeches in which crucial terms were carefully defined. Such an exercise could easily lead into a discussion of the earmarks of a satisfactory definition. It could also lead to a consideration of the difference between a formal definition and an operational definition and when each is appropriate. These principles

could then be fed back into more study of radio programs.

2. *The person who thinks critically identifies the basic assumptions in an argument.* He realizes that the conclusions are a function of these assumptions, and hence, to the extent he questions the assumptions, to that extent he questions the conclusions which are logically based upon them.

Such a principle is readily discovered by students if they are encouraged to develop their own systems of geometry. A number of investigators, including one of the present authors, found this to be true in their experiments. A study of non-Euclidean geometry furnishes another excellent means of developing this principle in a geometrical context.

There are at least four sources on the radio which lend themselves to illustrating this principle.

One is the commercials. Every commercial is an argument; in a sense a proof. The advertisers would like to persuade you to choose a Ford when you buy a car, Prell when you want to wash your hair, and the Army if you decide to enlist. Now each commercial, being an argument, is based upon certain assumptions (premises). "Gladys Swarthout says, 'Mildest cigarettes I ever smoked.'" What is the hidden assumption you must accept if this testimonial convinces you? "Over two million smokers have switched to Philip Morris." For this bandwagon technique to swing any weight, what assumptions go along with the swing? Let the students identify these assumptions and react to their truth value. Experience shows they "eat it up."

A second source is the reports of commentators like Fulton Lewis, Walter Winchell, Drew Pearson, and others who editorialize in addition to reporting facts. Editorializing requires deductive thinking and consequently reasoning from assumptions of varying degrees of truth. In addition to recognizing the implicit assumptions, students can discuss the prob-

able truth of these assumptions and the validity and truth of the conclusions these men reach as implications of their assumptions.

A third source is the radio forums. Not only can students pick out stated and unstated assumptions while listening to the discussions, but by sending for copies of the program they can also study the reasoning at greater length. Such study will lend weight to a principle discovered in the geometrical content: that simply because two speakers disagree in their conclusions, it does not mean one of them has reasoned badly.

The fourth source is probably one which students will find very attractive. It is the comedy program—Jack Benny, Can You Top This?, Truth or Consequences, and others. Many jokes are based on assumptions; we laugh because we have made the wrong assumption and the punch-line makes us realize our foolishness. Having students identify the basic assumptions of the jokes and humorous situations may be used merely to help convince them that assumptions pervade all our thinking. Or the formal relation of conclusions (those anticipated and those which really turn up) and the tacit assumptions can be compared with similar relations in demonstrative proofs in geometry.

3. *A person who thinks critically distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant evidence.* A student soon learns that some statements are irrelevant when these are pointed out in proofs other students put on the board. He learns to say to himself in testing the relevance of a statement, "assuming it is true, so what?"

Again, the radio can be used to illustrate arguments filled with irrelevant data as well as those in which all data are relevant. The singing commercials used last spring by Dodge might have been a new low but the data, "lower on the outside, higher on the inside," etc., were relevant. Insufficient for a convincing proof of

EDITOR'S NOTE

During the past school year, says Mr. Henderson, the authors developed "a host of learning exercises utilizing the radio," many of which are presented in this article. The exercises were prepared to give students in geometry classes some practical experiences in critical thinking. Dr. Henderson and Miss Fulton are members of the faculty of the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Dodge's superiority, yet pertinent! In contrast, the singing commercial for Post Raisin Bran about Maisie, the raisin and Jake, the flake must persuade because of its emotional appeal. It certainly contains no relevant data.

Political speeches given over the radio can be screened for relevant and irrelevant data. They can be compared with the succinct, straight-forward, and logical proofs of geometry theorems. Students may not of free choice listen to such speeches if entertaining programs compete, but we have found they are willing to do so when they understand the purpose of the activity. They seem to enjoy matching their minds against the powers of persuasion of the speaker.

4. *A person who thinks critically is not deceived by common errors in straight thinking.* Examples of these common errors are reasoning after the fact, circular reasoning, reasoning by analogy, assuming the converse or inverse of a proposition, jumping to conclusions, etc.

In most cases these examples of *non sequiturs* are first identified in geometric proofs. Once understood, they can be demonstrated to occur even more frequently in non-mathematical thinking. If students are alerted, they can detect them in all sorts of radio programs from comedy programs to serious talks. More examples will be found

in radio advertising than elsewhere. This, in itself, is quite a topic for class discussion.

The psychological and educational evidence is conclusive that students do not learn to think logically and critically as a necessary concomitant of mastering geometrical theorems. The evidence is equally conclusive that transfer of training can be

brought about *if the teacher deliberately teaches for transfer.*

The implication of these two facts is that the teacher must transcend the domain of the conventional subject matter in geometry if he wants to nail down the principles of critical thinking, and have much confidence that they will make a difference in the behavior of students.



"IN MY OPINION . . ."

This department will appear from time to time. Readers are welcome to express their opinions pro or con on anything that appears in THE CLEARING HOUSE, or to comment on current problems of secondary education. We shall publish as many letters, or excerpts from letters, as space allows. Ed.

Ecuador Quake

TO THE EDITOR:

I am writing to you to urge the inclusion in an early issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE of a brief note directing the attention of American teachers to the educational potentialities presented by the recent tragic earthquake in Ecuador.

One of our most difficult steps in educating for world understanding is the development of a sensitivity to the problems of peoples of other countries. The dramatic impact of the earthquake, its city-swallowing performance, and the magnitude of its destructiveness, may provide bases for student interest in either extending aid to victims or in expressing their appreciation to a suffering people.

In addition, school children and their teachers can help to form, in the minds of Ecuadorians, an appreciation for the basic generosity which has characterized Americans. Ecuador knows little about the United States, having been considered of little interest to this nation until the recent war. The school in Ecuador where I served as principal had been established to replace a German institution in the year 1941.

For American schools to make some response to the continuing destitution of thousands of human beings cannot help but constitute a step toward the improvement of relations between our two countries.

I have been informed by Wilford Mauck, Director, Education Division, Institute of Inter-American Affairs, 499 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., that his office will be glad to forward contributions, letters, or certain small articles for schools and educational institutions in the earthquake area.

The Institute operates a program in the affected area, and American employees would undoubtedly supervise the distribution of whatever materials or contributions might be sent. Our Ambassador to Ecuador has written that a Committee in the Department of State to coordinate relief activities has been formed. Send communications to Mr. Frank Orum.

Douglas S. Ward
Instructor in Education
University of Illinois
Urbana, Ill.

Parental Squawk

TO THE EDITOR:

There is always something that a pupil can do in my science class to make up for any weakness and thereby receive a passing mark. However, as a last resort I gave a grade of "F" instead of "I" to a boy, thinking that it would jolt him into activity.

The parent signed the card and wrote the following statement, "The parents should have 'I' for their trouble and expense."

Could this be the newest in the philosophy of grading?

Helen Grace Horton
Science Teacher
Nevada, Mo., High School

WHAT GUIDANCE —AND BY WHOM?

By

ANDREW D. ROBERTS

SUGGESTIONS in the literature on the organization of the guidance program in the high school vary from the concept of a highly centralized bureau which has the major share of administrative powers to the Strang proposal that guidance services be considerably decentralized and placed for the most part in the hands of the individual teacher. Reavis, Jones, and Brewer contend that the following four types of guidance programs are common in the school systems at the present time:

1. *Centralized bureau or administrative agency:* This agency determines the guidance policies which are to be followed by the local secondary schools.
2. *Centralized bureau with secondary school as the major unit:* In this second type of guidance program, the individual secondary school has major administrative responsibility for setting up its own organization, while the central administrative agency performs an advisory and coordinative function.
3. *The secondary school as the sole unit:* The high school operating under this guidance program administers its own policies without the control or assistance of any central administrative agency.
4. *Teacher guidance program:* In this system no one office or individual is responsible for the organization of the guidance program. The teachers themselves organize the program and administer the guidance services as a part of their teaching duties.

In general, the majority of guidance authorities favor the second type of guidance program mentioned, since the individual secondary school can receive the benefits of bureau research findings, its superior facilities, the advice and aid of its specialists, and still retain a sufficient amount of authority to provide for the wants and needs of its pupils. The first type of program is regarded as too highly centralized for optimum effi-

ciency, while the third and fourth types are considered to be too decentralized and haphazard to provide for the guidance needs of the high-school pupil population.

Minimum Essentials for the High School Guidance Program

1. *Provision for pupil guidance in adjusting to the new school unit:* The personnel of the high and junior high school must pool their combined resources in order to aid the pupil to become oriented to the new institution and to make a wise selection of his senior-high-school program.
2. *Provision for the continuous study of the pupil:* Sufficient finances, facilities, and time must be allotted for testing, interviewing, observation, consultation, and other activities which are essential to understanding the student.
3. *Provision for the maintenance of adequate records:* It is essential to maintain a systematic record of the vital data collected by the counselor, the teacher, and other school personnel. If this record is cumulative in character, it will aid the counselor in more adequately assessing the improvement or lack of improvement in the total personality pattern of the individual for any given period.
4. *Provision for assisting the individual to adjust to his present and future environment:* This includes both group and individual counseling methods and the cooperation of all subject teachers, particularly those in the fields of social science and English.
5. *Provision for special services:* The

school must be able to furnish adequate personnel facilities for the physically handicapped, the psychological deviates, and the student with remedial difficulties (reading, arithmetic, etc.).

6. *Provision for placement and follow-up:* The school must aid the student with his job, college, and personal adjustment problems prior to graduation. Follow-up studies of graduates are necessary if the effectiveness of the school in preparing its students to meet the problems of life is to be accurately evaluated.

7. *Provision for adaptation:* The guidance program needs to be flexible enough to be adaptable to new or previously unperceived needs or wants of the secondary-school population.

For realizing the foregoing aims, guidance authorities and school administrators alike have stressed four general principles which will increase the operating efficiency of the high-school guidance program. It is acknowledged that all forces of the school must be brought to bear on the problems of pupils. The guidance specialist who does not gain the cooperation of the teaching staff and other school personnel will not be able to render significant service to the student.

The delegations of responsibility in all cases must be clear both in nature and in scope. Considerable overlapping of duties of various school personnel will cause confusion and probably interfere with the smooth functioning of the guidance program.

The third principle, which is related to the second one, is that each agency must know its own function and the relation of its function to the broad over-all program.

The last principle is concerned with the unified nature of the assistance offered by the guidance program. Jones and Brewer indicate the problems which can arise when the school hires a multiplicity of counseling personnel whose efforts are diverted into varying or even opposing channels.

They also point to the difficulties which can occur when a network of independent school services work at "odds-points," or when two or more of these autonomous groups attempt to solve the problems of the same pupil or group of pupils with different counseling philosophies and techniques.

Organization and Administration of This Guidance Program

What type of administrative organization is best suited to fulfill the objectives which have been referred to in the foregoing section? The guidance program described in this article is intended primarily for the secondary school which has approximately 1,000 to 1,500 students.

The role of the assistant superintendent in charge of pupil personnel in this program will be primarily for advisory, coordinative, and referral purposes. His office will probably be responsible for the organization of the special services unit which provides for the care of students who are physically or mentally disabled, those with severe remedial handicaps, and other special problem cases.

It is perhaps advisable for this office to have the nominal powers to set minimum standards for the types of tests used by the guidance program, the amount of testing, the type and amount of information recorded in the cumulative records, and the broad content of the orientation and senior problems courses. This administrative authority, however, is justifiable only insofar as it insures the adequacy of the high-school guidance services. It should never be employed as a device to by-pass or interfere with the jurisdiction of the principal in his administrative relations with the secondary-school staff.

The functions of the high-school staff are described in detail farther on. Disciplinary, regulatory, and curriculum authority, as conceived in this article, are to be vested in the principal and vice-principal, and the

role of the director of guidance is essentially a staff function. As stated by Douglass, full responsibility for developing the organization and machinery for the guidance program should be placed in the hands of this head counselor. The duties of the director of guidance are primarily to implement the program which will meet the seven "minimum essentials" described earlier in this article.

In a high school of 1,000 to 1,500 pupils, it is recommended that the director have a staff of four teacher-counselors. These teacher-counselors should teach from one-third to one-half of the school day and devote the remainder of their working time to performing their guidance tasks. If feasible, these teacher-counselors should be selected from the department which gives the orientation, occupations, and senior-problems courses, so that continuity between group and individual counseling efforts can be systematically maintained and integrated. It is advisable not to have pupils assigned to counselors with whom they have classes, since the disciplinary control necessarily exercised by the teacher in the classroom will probably interfere with the achieving of counseling rapport in many cases.

Guidance Functions of the High School Staff¹

A. Guidance functions of the principal and vice-principal

1. To assist the counselor to plan a guidance program which will fit in with the general high-school curriculum.
2. To supervise homeroom and subject teachers.
3. To maintain spirit and morale of the school.
4. To revise school program or curriculum in accordance with the research

¹ This list, although it contains some revisions, is adapted largely from the following source: Richard D. Allen, "Delegating the Guidance Functions within a Secondary School," *Occupations*, October 1931, pp. 14-19.

EDITOR'S NOTE

What is the least that a high school can offer its students in an adequate program of guidance services? How can the guidance work be divided most efficiently among the high-school staff? Dr. Roberts, who says he has been working on these two problems for some time, offers his conclusions here. He is a counselor in Whittier, Cal., Union High School.

findings and suggestions of the director of guidance.

5. To use the help of the counselor and teacher-counselors in organizing the activity program.
 6. To evaluate the effectiveness of the guidance program and suggest changes or revisions in order to preserve it as an integral part of the school curriculum.
- B. Guidance functions of the subject teacher
1. To arouse interests and develop right attitudes.
 2. To arrange tryout projects in the subject.
 3. To train students to recognize their present and future problems.
 4. To encourage and develop special abilities.
 5. To attempt remedial instruction in subject handicaps with aid of counselor.
 6. To lead a club or activity which aids development of student personality.
 7. To cooperate with the counselor in obtaining optimum adjustment of the pupil.
- C. Guidance functions of the orientation teacher
1. To aid the individual through class instruction to understand himself and his environment.
 2. To utilize this understanding to aid

the student to meet his present and future adjustment problems.

3. To work directly with the director of guidance to promote the adjustment of normal and special problem students.
 4. To furnish information to the counselor about the interests, abilities, deficiencies, and attitudes of each pupil.
 5. To furnish information to the counselor concerning the pupil's adjustment within his class and his peer group.
- D. Guidance functions of the homeroom teacher
1. Helpful, friendly, personal interest in each pupil.
 2. Orientation in school life and routine.
 3. Records, reports, and attendance.
 4. To develop school citizenship, leadership, and personality.
 5. To cooperate with the director of guidance in assisting the pupil with his adjustment problems.
- E. Guidance functions of the director of guidance
1. Organization and administration of the guidance program and department with the aid and under the supervision of the principal.
 2. To coordinate the guidance functions of all the high-school staff.
 3. To supervise and advise the teachers who teach orientation, occupations, senior problems, and similar courses.
 4. To organize an adjustment program for new pupils.
 5. To organize and administer the group and individual counseling program.
 6. To maintain adequate records for the guidance needs of each student.
 7. To perform research and follow-up studies in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the guidance program.
 8. To adapt the guidance program to

the changing needs and desires of the pupils whenever warranted.

In order to achieve his objectives, the counselor will undoubtedly find it essential to conduct a formal or informal in-service faculty training program in order to acquaint the staff with the major aims, the acceptable methods, and procedures compatible with a good guidance program. It is advisable for the counselor of guidance to explain in detail the function of each member of the staff and to stress the importance of each individual and group contribution. Unless the counselor can obtain an understanding and sympathetic attitude on the part of his co-workers, guidance concepts and practices will not permeate the entire curriculum and the logical result will be a partial rather than a total mobilization of the resources of the school. The director of guidance can assist the teachers with their problems in writing the anecdotal record, in evaluating the essential behavior patterns on a character rating scale, and in administering and scoring psychometric measurements.

As has already been stated, it is the responsibility of the director of guidance to organize the program and machinery for his four teacher-counselors and to determine the nature and scope of their duties. The class advisers and the homeroom teachers are perhaps his closest faculty link with the student guidance program, and it may be necessary for the head counselor and his trained associates to work closely with these staff representatives until they develop sufficient skill in the use of guidance procedures.

The head counselor will undoubtedly have to work closely with the teachers who are teaching the orientation, occupations, tryout, exploratory, senior problems, and similar classes in order to insure that the group and individual counseling efforts are operating as an integrated whole. It may also be mandatory for him to consult with these teachers in order to devise class prac-

tices and procedures which will adequately meet the needs of the students.

In order effectively to delimit his sphere of duties, it is perhaps best for him to fol-

low the maxim suggested by Jones, "to let the teacher execute every task which he can perform as well as or better than the counselor."



FINDINGS

DROP-OUTS: Of 440 Louisville, Ky., boys and girls who left school between the ages of 14 and 19 and were interviewed concerning their reasons for quitting, 48% said they were dissatisfied with school, reports *American Teacher*. Of these drop-outs who were dissatisfied with school, about 18% had been discouraged by failing grades, 14% were dissatisfied with the courses offered, and 12% disliked the teachers or their teaching methods. Some 35% "disliked school generally," and the remainder (21%) gave miscellaneous reasons.

ADULT EDUCATION: Adult education is growing rapidly and the number of participants is mounting fast, states Homer Kempfer in *School and Society*. In New Jersey, both the number of adult schools and their enrolment have tripled in 3 years. In the past year, California had almost a million adults enrolled in an extensive program which included forums and a wide variety of other recognized activities under school sponsorship. In Wisconsin, adult-education enrolment has almost doubled in the past 3 years, while Connecticut reports an 80% increase in the same period. In upstate New York the past year, all but 3 cities and 35 villages provided some kind of adult education: "In 1946-47, twice as many people spent four times as many hours studying twice as many subjects in three times as many communities of the State as was the case in 1944-45." A Gallup Poll in 1947 showed that 41% of adults wanted to continue their education.

IQ AND NEIGHBORHOOD: Does our apartment-house civilization, in which people live piled up, layer upon layer, have a bad effect on children's IQ's? Possibly, according to a study of the IQ's and residential districts of 40,000 junior-high pupils in Los Angeles, reported by Howard A. Bowman in *Los Angeles School Journal*. The findings were that "pupils below IQ 100 tend to live in areas which are 'crowded,' while those of greater ability tend to live in areas which have more open territory, larger homesites, fewer multiple-family dwellings."

JOURNALISM: "Startling facts" about the absence of journalism courses in Indiana high schools that publish student newspapers, and the short period of service of publications sponsors, are reported by Kathleen Meehan in *Indiana Teacher*. In her study, 331 high schools (about 42% of those in the State) cooperated. In general, the 331 high schools reported 246 newspapers but only 91 journalism classes; 206 yearbooks, 66 handbooks, and 9 literary magazines; and 30 school news bureaus. In the 144 high schools with 100 or fewer students, there are 63 yearbooks and 87 newspapers, but only 13 journalism classes; and the average length of service of editorial sponsors of newspapers was 3.1 years. In the 110 high schools with 101 to 300 students, there were 73 yearbooks and 85 newspapers, but only 55 journalism classes; and 30% of the editorial sponsors of newspapers were serving their first year. In the 77 high schools with more than 300 students, there are 70 yearbooks and 74 newspapers, but only 53 journalism classes; and the average length of service of editorial sponsors of newspapers was 5.8 years. Some of the schools reported 2 or 3 journalism courses. Almost three-quarters of the schools that have newspapers offer no courses in journalism. As an antidote to the rapid turnover among sponsors, Miss Meehan recommends that they be given periods during school hours for work with the student staffs.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

TEACHER TRAITS

that Pupils Like or Dislike

By
L. E. LEIPOLD

EVERY CHILD has his favorites—ice cream flavors, days of the week, holidays, movies—and in this modern age some children even have their favorite fathers and mothers. It is very natural therefore that pupils should have their favorite teachers; and conversely, one can assume that they have their least-liked instructors as well. Having had a multitude of youngsters over a period of many years of school work literally and figuratively cry on my shoulder over teacher troubles, experience attests to the truth of the assumption.

Knowing of these often violent likes and dislikes on the part of pupils, I attempted recently to learn the opinions of several thousand pupils enrolled in a score of high schools in scattered sections of the country. The schools concerned were large and small, rural, urban, and in-between. The pupils were given these simple instructions, and then they were asked to answer briefly the three questions which followed:

You have had many teachers since you first started school. Some of these teachers you have liked; some you have probably not liked as much—maybe you feel you didn't like one or two of them at all. Will you write your own answers to the three questions below, making your answers long or short, whatever you feel like doing, but be just as *definite* as possible.

1. Think back about all of the teachers that you have had since you began school way back in the first grade or kindergarten. Which one did you like best? Why did you like this teacher best? Don't give the teacher's name—just tell why this one was or is your favorite teacher.

2. Now, which one did you like least? Can you tell why you didn't like this teacher?

3. What do you think your teachers could do to make themselves better liked? Can you suggest something in just a few words?

The comments on Question One were direct, explicit, and serious. Few pupils attempted to be either "smart" or facetious. True, several said they didn't like *any* teachers, but they were few in number. Some either said or implied that their favorite teachers were "easy marks" who always let them have their own way, gave in to them on every occasion, and in general indicated a spinelessness characteristic of weak instructors. Their number, again, was small. The great majority answered the question with a seriousness and an understanding which were a credit to them.

The characteristic mentioned most often was "fairness"; the second was "pleasantness"; a third was "strictness." Many times an exact descriptive word or phrase escaped the writer and the favorite teacher was described as being just "nice" or "always good to me." From the replies received, there were selected ten which are given here. They are typical of the others.

1. This teacher was always fair. She didn't treat some of us one way and some another way. Also, she didn't make big things out of little ones. We all liked her.

2. The teacher that I liked best was my ninth-grade English teacher. I didn't like English too much but I did like the teacher. She was always smiling and kind. She made us feel as if she was glad when we came to her class in the morning.

3. My favorite teacher is my science teacher. I think I like him because he is always so neatly dressed and so courteous to us. We like him because he knows how to teach and is right there to help us.

4. I don't know just why I liked my

"favorite" teacher. We all "just liked him." He was good to us and joked with us a lot. He was strict with us sometimes too so we didn't feel that we could get by with things but he was still a lot of fun. We had lots of parties and such things in his room but we learned a lot, too.

5. My favorite teacher treated me swell. She had children of her own at home so I guess she understood us better because of them. We used to be awfully aggravating at times but she never lost her temper.

6. All of us kids had respect for the teacher that we voted as our favorite teacher of our junior year in high school. He was the high-school principal and taught history. He let us plan many doings and we had school dances and parties often. He didn't let a few kids spoil things for the rest of us but sometimes we felt sorry for him the way kids acted even though he was always good to them.

7. Some of the best times that I had in school were in Miss C's class. She taught civics and we took a newspaper and magazine to read in class and we took lots of trips to different places. She helped us to plan these trips and we had a lot of fun on them. She was nice to us and never nagged us the way some teachers do.

8. My favorite teacher is the best explainer I ever knew. She teaches math and I like math so maybe that is why I like her best but she always was so patient when teaching us—and some of us were so dumb! She never acted discouraged though I wouldn't blame her if she had.

9. I guess I like Mr. B because he liked me. He told me so one day and said I was one of the finest kids he had ever had in class. After that I worked twice as hard as I did before. He sure was swell.

10. Coach is the best teacher I ever had or ever will have, I guess. He is a real guy. He bawls us out sometimes and once in a while is hard on us but we learn more from him than from any other coach we had.

What things do pupils *dislike* in their

teachers? Ask a group of high-school pupils that question, swear them to anonymity, and see what you get! One reads their replies, then staggers to a mirror and asks in dismay, "Could that be *me*?"

Here are some of their frank and revealing statements. Read them and ponder:

1. I know that pupils shouldn't refer to teachers as "old bags" but this teacher was one. She talked all of the time; she nagged us; she compared herself and her relatives to us—with us always getting the short end of the deal, of course. One day one of the boys in the class expressed the sentiments of the whole group when, after she had been spouting off for the whole class period, she asked, "Now what would you like to have me do?" and this boy said, "Drop dead."

2. My most unliked teacher was sarcastic and mean so often that we all just hated her. She seemed to delight in hurting us and making us feel bad.

3. If I could have had my "druthers," I'd druther grow up to be a moron than be in this teacher's class again. He was loud, just naturally big-mouthed. You could hear him

EDITOR'S NOTE

In the February 1949 issue we published Dr. Leipold's article, "Pupil Traits that Teachers Like and Dislike." In submitting this companion article he writes, "At the time that article appeared I had many requests from pupils, including several hundred of my own, to let them tell what they like or dislike about teachers. I had already set about gathering data on that very subject. Here is the result—no statistical study, but the kind of stuff that can be used profitably by teachers and administrators." Dr. Leipold is principal of Nokomis Junior High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

all over the building even with the band playing. Boy, what a corn he was!

4. My least-liked teacher was quite popular with many students but I always hated her after she accused me of doing something that I didn't do. I told her that I didn't do it but she just didn't believe me and said so. I despise her to this day because of this.

5. I don't know why we didn't like Miss G but we just didn't. She fussed at us all the time. She never seemed to give us credit for any thing, never praised us, but picked on us constantly. How can you like someone like that?

6. The teacher that I liked least was my last year's chemistry teacher. Maybe it was because I didn't like chemistry that I didn't like him, or vice versa. Anyhow, I always associated the smells of the chemistry room with him—I don't know to this day which one smelled worse.

7. The teacher who was disliked the most by us kids was what one might call "nasty nice." She could say the most unkind things sweeter than anyone I ever knew. After she would get through with one of us in private we would like to feed her poison—in public.

8. I never thought I could like a teacher as much as I do Mrs. D, nor dislike one as much as Miss B. She treats us so mean most of the time that nobody likes her except her favorites. She isn't fair at all; she gives high marks to kids who don't deserve them and flunks others just because she knows they don't like her.

9. If there is ever an open season on teachers, I am going after Mr. M. He and

I just didn't get along. He often jumped on me in class and ridiculed me in front of everybody. One time he called me a "damned sneak" right in front of the class. I wasn't perfect, I know, but I didn't deserve that.

10. My least-liked teacher? I don't have any. They have all been wonderful to me. It is just as hard to tell which one I like least as it would be to tell which one I like best.

Now, in what ways can teachers make themselves better liked? A composite of all of the traits which the pupils said made them like certain teachers best, plus the opposites of the traits which made other teachers disliked, could be combined to make their ideal teacher. Here are bits of quotations from their replies which are indicative of their thoughts on this subject:

"Be fair . . . never sarcastic . . . be nice to us . . . treat us like human beings . . . neat . . . should like children . . . have a sense of humor . . . be fair markers . . . friendly . . . be one of us . . ."

One of the pupils summed it all up in one sentence when she wrote, "I like the teachers who like me. I have never known a favorite teacher who wasn't herself a likeable person."

A composite picture representing all of the undesirable characteristics set forth by these pupils would be Dorian Gray-like indeed; a similar picture of the desirable, likeable traits which great teachers leave as a legacy with their pupils would put a Titian to shame.



Among Other Things

At home, I turned through several old grade books and went into statistics. I found that during the past year I had read or heard 2,311 book reports, graded 2,255 tests, and corrected 1,221 compositions besides handling various other pieces of oral and written work. And this year had been fairly typical, although I had had only four classes the second semester because of work with the yearbook.

(Incidentally, this was the first time that I had ever had a period off for an activity, having been used to working with activities in the afternoons, often until 5 or 5:30, in addition to five full classes.) My grade books also indicated that in the past I had faithfully checked in about 8,000 to 9,000 pieces of homework per year.—JAMES E. WARREN, JR., in *Georgia Education Journal*.

VISITING DAY:

Neighboring systems revive 110-year-old idea

By CHARLOTTE ISHAM

NO SCHOOL MONDAY. The reason? "All the teachers are going away." Anyway that was the reason the children gave. They didn't give the whole answer, though. Each teacher knew why the school was closed, where he was going, and what he wanted to see.

One might have said that the teachers of Newtown, Woodbury, and Southbury were celebrating the 110th Anniversary of Visiting Day, for it was just 110 years ago that Henry Barnard invited the teachers of Connecticut to attend a Teachers Institute in Hartford. This institute, the first in the country as well as the first in our state, had for its purpose "Improvement of Teachers in Service." One of the most attractive features of the institute was the opportunity afforded the teachers to visit "the best schools in Hartford." Teachers were also urged to participate in the discussions which followed the observations.

Our teachers had similar experiences in the fall of 1948. They discussed their problems with other teachers, saw good lessons by superior teachers, witnessed the use of new materials, and felt the urge to go back to their respective schools to try the new ideas. The institute of 1838 was planned because of a felt need. Our visiting day was planned because the teachers requested it. They too felt that a visiting day would be a day of valuable in-service growth.

The teachers were right. It was a day of in-service growth. But the growth was "not for just a day." Cultivation for growth began early in August when help was sought through the State Department of Education. Their suggestions became a part of a general discussion at the first faculty meet-

ing in September. As each teacher considered his own particular interests and needs, letters were written to superintendents, supervisors, and principals in nearby towns. The schools chosen were those which might present problems similar to ours. The letters which came back to us were very helpful and most cordial. Superintendents and supervisors took time to list schools which had strong programs in special fields, and even offered further assistance if needed or desired.

When all responses had been received the teachers in each town met to discuss ways to make our visiting day a worthwhile one. Suggestions included: (1) Be sure the principal knows of the visiting teachers' presence, (2) Stay in a school or building long enough to get a fair picture, (3) emphasize the advisability of looking for the good, (4) Arrive in the building before school starts in order to see the program and become

EDITOR'S NOTE

In 1838, Henry Barnard invited Connecticut teachers to the first institute ever held in the U. S., and gave them an opportunity to observe some of the best classroom work being done in the Hartford, Conn., schools. In 1948, the school systems of three neighboring towns revived the idea in their own way, and found it so effective that they are continuing it annually. Miss Isham is supervisor of the regional high-school district in which the three towns are located, and has her headquarters in Southbury, Conn.

somewhat acquainted with the physical layout, and (5) Expect the best.

October 11th was our day. From all reports the majority of our teachers put in a longer school day than usual. In only one instance were there more than five teachers visiting in the same town. A few chose to go alone, and others travelled in groups of three to five. It was a beautiful day—weather and otherwise. And what a thrill to step into a school and in less time than it takes to tell it, feel that you were welcome, indeed almost as though you were one of the faculty.

Three different meetings were held the week following the visiting day, one in each town. Each person came prepared to tell of at least one new idea or clever presentation which he had witnessed. A scribe in each group recorded the highlights, disappointments, and suggestions for improvements for another year. Here are a few which were listed:

Highlights

1. Becoming acquainted with new or different materials.
2. Value of a full-time librarian.

3. Talking with the teachers after classes.

Disappointments

1. In a few cases the stage seemed to be set.
2. Some teachers talked too much so the children didn't have a chance.
3. Saw nothing different.

Suggestions for Improvements

1. A few teachers felt that October was too soon.
2. Several thought Tuesday or Wednesday might be a better day than Monday.
3. Reporting unusual programs throughout the year as suggestions for a visiting day next fall.

With the exception of a very few lukewarm responses, the general opinion seemed to be that our visiting day was a great success, and that we would certainly appreciate having one again the next year. Many new ideas have already been tried. Several teachers reported that they felt very much encouraged. It seems that other teachers have problems similar to ours—and a few have worse ones!



Song of the Year

By RUTH MARGARET GIBBS

Yesterday was summer,
But summer only stayed
Until the pod was ripened
And plans for harvest laid.

Today the winds of autumn
Brought ruddy apples down,
The maples, masquerading,
Lost trimmings from their gown.

So swift, the year—a moment,
And spring forgets to sow;
Yesterday was summer . . .
Tomorrow will be snow.

WHICH PUPILS 8-school study have the PROBLEMS?

By
LOLA BUCHANAN and RAY BRYAN

MODERN educators now realize that if they are going to provide an adequate educational program which will meet the needs of pupils, they must take into consideration the "whole pupil." They know that his mental, his emotional, and his physical needs are also closely allied and that situations which affect one are also very apt to affect the others. Thus the personal problems of pupils become very real factors in the educational program.

With the importance of this fact in mind, a recent study was made of the personal problems reported on the Mooney¹ Personal Problem Check List by high-school pupils in a typical Iowa county. The chief purpose of the study was to determine whether there were any significant relationships between the personal problems reported by high-school pupils and the specific factors of grade level, high-school enrollment, age, sex, residence, and occupation of the father.

The Mooney Check List contains a total of 330 items, classified in eleven areas. These areas are as follows: Health and Physical Development; Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment; Social and Recreational Activities; Courtship, Sex, and Marriage; Social-Psychological Relations; Personal-Psychological Relations; Morals and Religion; Home and Family; The Future: Vocational and Educational; Adjustment to School Work; Curriculum and Teaching Procedures. The problems listed in each area are carefully phrased and selected to give a

self-description of problems within the scope of experiences common to high-school pupils and are inclusive enough to allow each pupil to identify his particular problems.

Data were secured from 764 pupils who were in attendance in eight of the nine high schools in the county. These schools were classified in three groups: Those with enrollments up to 100, between 100 and 200, and more than 200. The data thus secured were tabulated in order that analyses could be made to determine if there were any significant relationships between the eleven areas and the six factors previously listed.

Typical problems in the area of Health and Physical Development were worry about being overweight or underweight, frequent headaches, poor complexion, poor posture, speech handicaps, and weak eyes.

Of the six factors under consideration, two were found to be significant in this area. Statistical treatment showed the factor of high-school enrollment to be so significant that the differences could not be considered as peculiar to the groups from which data were obtained. Rather it would indicate that there is a definite relationship between the size of the school and personal problems of high-school pupils in the area of Health and Physical Development. Pupils in the larger schools seemed more aware of problems in this area than those in the smaller schools. The second factor, that of sex, was found to be even more significant and would seem to indicate that girls were more aware of such problems than were boys.

¹ Mooney, Ross L., Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The area of Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment included such problems as having no regular allowance, having less money than friends had, having too few clothes, living in a poor neighborhood, being too crowded at home, having no car in the family, and being ashamed of the house in which the family lived. Again two of the six factors were found to be very significant in this area, indicating that there was very little chance that the differences could be explained as an accident of sampling.

Of the three size-groups of schools, pupils in the larger schools reported the greatest number of personal problems, and the smaller schools reported the next largest number. This would indicate that there is a relationship between the size of the school and the personal problems of which high-school pupils are aware in the area of Finances, Living Conditions and Employment. From the relationship of the father's occupation to such problems it would seem that pupils whose fathers were in a profession reported the least number of problems. In increasing rank were the pupils whose fathers were business owner, farm owner, farm laborer, farm renter, business employee, skilled and unskilled laborer. The miscellaneous group reported the greatest number of problems.

In the area of Social and Recreational Activities, there were such problems as being ill at ease at social affairs, having no place to entertain friends, not being allowed to use the family car, and not knowing how to dress attractively. Here there was a significant relationship between high-school enrollment and sex, and the personal problems contained in this area. Pupils in the larger schools reported more problems in the area of Social and Recreational Activities and girls were more aware of such problems than were boys.

The area of Courtship, Sex, and Marriage listed such problems as being awkward in making a date, not knowing how to entertain on a date, insufficient knowledge

about sex matters, petting and making love, lack of sex attractiveness, and "going steady." Here again high-school enrollment showed a significant relationship: pupils in the larger schools were more aware of problems in this area. Also, there was a significant relationship between age and the area of Courtship, Sex, and Marriage, as the older pupils were more aware of such problems.

Problems in the area of Social-Psychological Relations centered around such matters as feelings of inferiority, being left out of things, wanting a more pleasing personality, being talked about, being too easily led by other people, and being watched by others. For the first time the factor of grade level showed a significant relationship. Pupils in the eleventh and twelfth grades reported more problems in the area of Social-Psychological Relations. The two other factors which were highly significant were high-school enrollment and sex. In the three classifications of schools as to size, pupils in the smaller and the larger schools seemed more aware of such problems; and as to sex, girls were more aware of such problems than were boys.

Laziness, taking some things too seriously, lacking self-confidence, day-dreaming, being afraid of making mistakes, and worrying were some of the problems found in the area of Personal-Psychological Relations. And in this area four of the six factors under consideration were found to be highly significant. These four were grade level, high-school enrollment, age, and father's occupation. Pupils in grades eleven and twelve and between the ages of 16 to 19 seemed more aware of such problems, and pupils in the larger schools—those above 200 in enrollment—reported more problems having to do with Personal-Psychological Relations. Pupils whose fathers were in a profession reported the least number of problems in this area, and in increasing rank were pupils whose fathers were farm renter, skilled and unskilled laborer,

business owner, farm laborer, farm owner, business employee. The miscellaneous group reported the greatest number of problems.

In the area of Morals and Religion three factors were found to be significant. This area included such problems as being puzzled about the meaning of God, disliking church services, having a guilty conscience, wanting to know what the Bible means, swearing, dirty stories, cheating in classes, and trying to break off a bad habit—and the significant factors were high-school enrollment, grade level, and occupation of the father. It would seem that pupils in the eleventh and twelfth grades were more aware of problems in the area of Morals and Religion and that pupils in the larger schools reported the greatest number of problems in this area. Pupils whose fathers were in a profession again reported the least number of problems, and in increasing rank were pupils whose fathers were farm renter, skilled and unskilled laborer, farm owner, miscellaneous, business owner, business employee. Those whose fathers were farm laborers reported the greatest number of problems.

Typical problems in the area of Home and Family were sickness in the family, parents being divorced or separated, being criticized by parents, never having any fun with father or mother, clash of opinions between parents and children, family quarrels, wanting more freedom at home, and being an only child. Three factors were found to be significant. Pupils in the eleventh grade seemed more aware of problems in the area of Home and Family, while pupils in the larger schools reported the greatest number of problems in this area. It would seem also that girls were more aware of problems having to do with Home and Family than were boys.

The area showing the greatest number of significant factors was that of the Future: Vocational and Educational. Here were found such problems as needing to know vocational abilities, needing information

EDITOR'S NOTE

"One of the common obstacles to be overcome in starting or expanding a high-school guidance program is the attitude of the faculty that the students do not have very many problems," writes Dr. Bryan. "The accompanying article, based upon a study of the problems of students in eight high schools in an Iowa county, indicates the extent of such problems, and their frequency among different groups of students." Miss Buchanan is a counselor at Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., and Dr. Bryan is associate professor of vocational education at Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa.

about occupations, concern over military service, being restless to get out of school and into a job, graduating without being vocationally trained, deciding whether or not to go to college, and needing to plan ahead for the future. The factors of grade level, high-school enrollment, age, and residence showed a significant relationship.

Pupils in the eleventh grade and in the larger schools reported more problems in this area, and the factor of age would seem to indicate that the older pupils—those between the ages of 16 and 19—were more aware of such problems. Those pupils who lived in town reported more problems having to do with the Future: Vocational and Educational than pupils who lived on farms. Pupils whose fathers were farm renters reported the least number of problems. In increasing rank were pupils whose fathers were farm owner, farm laborer, business owner, professional, skilled and unskilled laborer, business employee. The miscellaneous group reported the greatest number of problems in this area.

Adjustment to School Work showed only two significant factors, high-school enrollment and sex. Problems in this area are

centered around such things as not knowing how to study effectively, worrying about grades, worrying about examinations, not liking school, getting low grades, and wanting to quit school. Pupils in schools with an enrollment under 100, and in schools with an enrollment of more than 200, seemed more aware of problems in this area. And in this area boys were more aware of such problems than were girls.

In the last problem area, that of Curriculum and Teaching Procedures, high-school enrollment was found to be the only significant factor. Here the pupils considered such problems as wanting subjects not offered by the school, feeling restless in classes, too few books in the library, teachers lacking personality, dull classes, too many poor teachers, feeling that grades are unfair as measurers of ability, poor assemblies, and the school being too indif-

ferent to students' needs. Again schools with an enrollment under 100 and those with an enrollment of more than 200 seemed more aware of problems in this area, with pupils in the larger schools reporting the greatest number of problems.

It can be seen from this study that high-school pupils do have a large number of personal problems of which they are aware and that there are significant relationships between those problems and the factors of grade level, high school enrollment, age, sex, residence and father's occupation. It may also be assumed that there are many other factors related to the personal problems reported by high-school pupils which were not considered in this study. Knowledge concerning the personal problems of high-school pupils should enable schools to assist them more effectively in the solution of those problems.



The Wise Use of Consultants

People who do much consulting commonly say that their services are seldom used to best advantage. They find that restrictions are often placed on them in the invitation to consult, that the preparations made for their arrival and the nature of the group in which they work limit their usefulness to a fraction of what it might be. A consultant is seldom able to influence the planning for his visit, and time is usually too brief to allow for a shift in procedure once he has arrived. The common experience is that he does what is requested of him and avoids the discourtesy of suggesting another way to make use of his skills or special information.

We are gradually beginning to accumulate some tested principles for the wise use of consultants. Groups who are responsible for seeking the help of such experts would do well to make their plans with these principles in mind:

1. *Make the request for help in terms of a problem, not in terms of the remedy or a request for a speech.* This leaves the door open for diagnosis, and for the preparation of plans that are tailor-made. . . .

2. *Have all persons concerned with the problem play a part in preparing for the consultant and in working with him.* Groups with a vested interest may become very much excited over a project they have assumed but they will have trouble persuading others to join them if these others are left out of the early planning. . . .

3. *Prepare to come out with an understanding of the state of affairs, not a diagnosis of a named disease.* . . .

4. *Explore the probable sources of emotional problems in using the consultant's services before he arrives.* . . . An evaluation session in which the members ask themselves how they feel toward a consultant may make it possible for them to achieve an objective frame of mind before he arrives.

5. *Feel free to change your plans for using the consultant after he has arrived.* . . .

6. *Work out your own diagnosis and plan for action.* We are warmest about our own ideas. . . .
ALVIN ZANDER in *School of Education Bulletin* (University of Michigan).

SOCIAL CONTROL at Southern High School

By
JOHN H. SCHWATKA

THERE ARE TWO means of attaining the desired educational goals of attitude and self-control. One is through a system of rewards or encouragement based on stimulation and inspiration. This system is implemented by marks, honors, responsibilities of leadership, awards, recognition, publicity, and other forms of commendation. Successful performance brings satisfaction to the individual because it carries with it group approval which recognizes his contribution.

Within a good school program the mechanics of this system are used regularly and constructively to build cooperative attitudes; and evidence of its effective functioning is everywhere about us—in the students' association, the assemblies, the clubs, the classrooms, the bulletins, the school publications, and other extracurricular activities. This system of rewards and encouragements is consistent with the democratic way of life; and today it is the most efficient educational method used with the large majority of our student bodies.

Another method of attaining desired educational goals is an authoritarian method based upon judgments, penalties, and punishments. Like the enforcement department of our own government, it is designed for those individuals who wander too frequently or too far from the beaten path and who need either a change of direction or an incentive to greater effort. It is built on society's disapproval of individual misconduct or the need to safeguard the group from deeds which threaten the social welfare. Instead of courts, fines, and jails, the

schools employ detention classes, ineligible lists, and failures as punishment devices; but when we invoke such methods, we are very much in the same position as the native who points out to the visitor the new jail which the town has constructed. We should know better.

In practice, a combination of the two methods is most often used because such a combination has been found to be most effective for good school discipline. Punishment or denial of privilege usually functions best when least invoked, however, on the principle that the school which is least ruled is best governed. Even when punishment is used, it will not prove effective unless it is followed by sympathetic discussion of the problem, with mutual cooperation of faculty and students, of individual teacher and student.

At Southern High School we are trying to maintain control through a democratic procedure based on social approval. Teachers are requested to refer only very serious cases to the office during class periods. Those pupils needing mainly help or advice from the deans are sent for conference before or after school. The office attempts especially to cooperate with teachers and the guidance department to obtain good school discipline and the best possible pupil adjustment. We communicate with parents when it is deemed wise or expedient; suspension for serious breaches of conduct is possible only with the principal's approval. Whole classes are not punished for the offenses of the few; separate marks for scholarship and conduct insure fairness in dif-

ferentiating between the two qualities.

I have often heard the expression, "I just can't learn mathematics." The student who says this has probably been the victim of poor teaching methods and may become, in a broad and general sense, a problem and perhaps a misconduct case by not being able to master a subject. There is no such thing as an inherently bad school-boy or schoolgirl. He may be a behavior problem by the time he reaches junior or senior high school; but it is usually because some well-intentioned adult has misdirected his education. In both situations the child may have been the victim of an adult whose methods of instruction were ambiguous.

Dr. Edwards, former principal of the Baltimore City College, takes much pleasure in telling the story of a little fellow who had six locks stolen in almost as many days. The boy could exercise his self-control no longer, went on a rampage and stole a dozen locks in retaliation. When questioned, he admitted his fault and confessed to an error in judgment based on righteous indignation. I believe, if I remember the conclusion of the story correctly, that the boy received good counsel for the future but was not blamed too strictly for the actual offense.

I recall, in my own experience, the case of a girl who took some change from a counselor's purse, usually fifteen to twenty-five cents daily. On one occasion, she inadvertently took the car keys with her, but was conscientious enough to return the keys to the office. I invited her to have a talk with me. She was very nervous and pale, so we visited the nurse's suite in search of assistance and aromatics; but before we could help her, the child fainted. When I questioned her later, she said she had not eaten since lunch time of the previous day. She told me that there were three other children at home and that they were out of food and funds.

As soon as possible, I asked the coopera-

tion of the South Baltimore Improvement Association, which sent several baskets of food to her home. I cleared the case through the Council of Social Agencies so that the children would be provided for; we created a job in school so that the girl could maintain her self-respect and earn her lunch money. Here was a perfect example of a so-called discipline case which was in reality a problem created by poverty and actual hunger.

At another time, one of our girls went on a spending spree. She had been singing on a local radio program and felt embarrassed because she was not better dressed. She and her mother were trying to live in two dilapidated rooms on an income of seven or eight dollars a week. The child went to department stores and charged purchases of less than five dollars apiece to teachers' accounts. Eventually she ran the total up to eighty dollars. After her case came to our attention, representatives from the department stores came to the school.

The school advanced eighty dollars to clear the accounts, received credits for returns, and created a job in school whereby the girl could help with her own and her mother's support. The entire debt was paid. Later the girl married, now has two children, and is a highly respected member of the community. I am sure that even if she were to read these lines she would not mind my telling this story of a "discipline" case which, sympathetically handled, produced a worthwhile citizen.

The problem is not always economic, of course; I recall one particular case in which the problem was physical. I had decided that the boy in question was truant. He came to school very irregularly, and with each absence came a note that his feet gave him trouble and he had to remain at home to rest them. However, when I checked on his after-school activities, I found that he had a paper route and seldom did he miss any deliveries.

He was assigned to the detention class and attended uncomplainingly until one of the counselors discovered, through the Society for the Aid of Crippled Children, that he needed special shoes. The boy wore the shoes for a week, but his feet grew worse until medical examination revealed that the boy had dislocated hips. He was hospitalized after surgical attention. During his long period of convalescence, a member of the Junior League kept him up with his major school subjects.

The first day of the new term, I was glad to see the boy back in school again. He was walking. However, his long period of inactivity had accentuated a glandular defect, so the boy was sent back to the hospital for bi-weekly treatment. During the second visit, he broke both ankles in an elevator accident and again returned to his hospital bed. The next fall, though, he walked into school to resume his work.

He left us while he was in the tenth grade because his financial assistance was needed at home. A few months ago, I heard that he had been in the service, and when discharged, he planned to use his G.I. benefits to continue his education.

As I think of this boy's persistence, I am a little ashamed that because of my ignorance of his difficulties I once assigned him to detention class.

Discipline has been defined as a manner of training, or as a procedure to accomplish desired educational results. Some people interpret it to mean simple obedience, compliance, or conformity to the norm; and certainly some aspects of it concern obedience. However, we at Southern prefer to think of discipline as the establishment of behavior patterns which are acceptable to the group. For instance, we sponsor dances, proms, and plays, not alone for their entertainment and financial values, but for the educational results that should be obtained. Planning for the dance, paying attention to details of grooming, dating, escorting or being escorted, dancing itself, learning

EDITOR'S NOTE

"The philosophy underlying this report," writes Mr. Schwatka, "has been developed by and in our faculty during the past twenty years. We have long ago discarded demerit systems, busy work, detention classes, and the like, and now place increased emphasis on new experiences and constructive enterprises. Our chief interest is in 'prevention' rather than correction." The author is principal of Southern Junior-Senior High School, Baltimore, Md.

the etiquette of banquets, cultivating habits of interesting conversation—all these activities encourage behavior patterns which have a lasting value in the world outside the school.

Theory and practice in almost any profession are far apart. There are vast differences in teaching, in theories of human behavior, and more and wider divergencies in practice. Schoolmasters of old were nearly unanimous in theories and pretty much in agreement in practice of getting "good behavior." "Spare the rod and spoil the child" and "Taught to the tune of the hickory stick" are not handed down today as "folk lore" but as history of method, say the old timers who mourn the passing of the good old days.

We schoolteachers of today are charged with, and have accepted, the serious responsibility of preparing boys and girls to take their respective places in the most complex civilization (society) the world has ever known. We use synthetic methods to shorten preparation in transmitting second-hand information to young Americans, athirst for "life," eager for the thrill of adventure into new and varied learning experiences.

"School is Life," says Dewey. Perhaps he

might agree today to qualify that statement. Certainly the schools of today attempt to train for life situations. But the greatest school in the world today is "Life Itself," the most effective method is "Hard Knocks," and the greatest teacher is "Experience."

The rate of juvenile delinquency is high. So is that of adult delinquency. Teachers and parents cannot afford to shrug their shoulders and blame it on the war, because the symptoms were evident before the war. The signs are still squarely before us—property rights vs. vandalism, the tendency to want something for nothing, lack of respect for authority, crimes involving stolen automobiles, robberies, purse snatchings. These are results, mainly, and concern teachers indirectly. The causes, however, are the primary responsibilities of church, home, and school, of the teachers of America.

The mortality rates in junior and senior high schools of today bear mute testimony to the errors in our educational systems throughout the country. If the schools could provide life situations, could only keep alive the native curiosity of the child as he first enters school, courses in method would be at a discount.

The skills and talents of nearly 60 per cent of our boys and girls escape from the jurisdiction of the schools before many desirable behavior patterns have been imparted. We lose them before we have developed them, before we have clinched lessons in citizenship, in services, and "set" the ideals of the democratic way of life.

It is true that life situations, real learning experiences, have wedged their way more and more deeply into school programs under the guise of extracurricular

activities and cooperative work-study plans. This is in itself a healthy sign, a beginning step in solving the paradox of trying to do a better job of preparing for life by renewing the educational prescription "more of same." In fact, we school teachers should encourage and welcome opportunities for self-expression and try to increase the number of learning experiences which constitute life, which help with the identification of personality, and which are the only means of assisting the child to discover and use his own resources.

Some progress has been made, but we make haste slowly, all too slowly, and it has taken several generations to outlive the peach tree "rod" and the "hickory stick." The transition of major emphasis from coercive to constructive discipline has been difficult as well as slow.

Youth likes discipline; youth craves orderliness and coordinated effort. Youth seeks team-play and group activity. But discipline must be based on interest. Boys and girls suffer a compelling inner urge to get their experiences first-hand. If we do not lead and guide, they will seek in spite of us, usually tapping the wrong sources.

Youth needs inspirational leadership. Let's forget teaching as "pouring in," fire up our furnaces of energy and enthusiasm, and invite them to share the thrills of accomplishment—success in some project, service where it is needed, and give to our respective communities the kind of citizen whose attitude is sympathetic and tolerant, energetic and steady, firm and fearless, who can work well with others and assume responsibility, and who above all believes in himself, his community, and his God.



I will not expect of the principal or teachers any privilege or favor for my children or the children of my friends or employees which would not be granted under the same circumstances to other patrons of the school.—Item from a code of ethics for school-board members, in *The Texas Outlook*.

When I Teach Slow Learners I Try to Remember These Points

By GJERTRUD SMITH

1. All children have had many experiences, and the more I can capitalize on these the closer pupils will come to learning what I expect to teach.

2. I must use all avenues of appeal to pupils: dramatics, humor, color, stories, praise, demonstrations, etc.

3. These pupils usually can maintain only short attention spans, so I must vary my program during the period (i.e., short period of reading, short period of discussion, short period of presentation by teacher or pupil, short period of activity, and other such devices.

4. Some of these pupils are reluctant to recite because of fear of ridicule from classmates, and I must help them without embarrassing them.

5. Pleasure is a far more powerful motive than is pain, so I will praise and comment favorably whenever possible and scold and condemn rarely.

6. Test scores from which IQ's are drawn may not be a true index of pupils' ability. Often a child with neurotic tendencies or unfortunate psychological experiences will test much lower than his native ability.

7. Because these pupils tend to be somewhat unstable emotionally, I will be sure of my control all the time. It probably will not be wise for me to turn my back on them for any length of time; I will have to have command of any discussion situation; I will have a specific routine for pupils entering the room, starting class, distributing books and materials, and for dismissal—and I will stick to this routine.

8. I will not frighten nor discourage pupils by making long assignments. I will assign only a few problems at a time. Qual-

ity of effort is much more important than quantity.

9. I should assume no previous learning. I will find out where they are in their understanding and start from there, move only as fast as the pupils can move, and be careful to explain and explain.

10. My pupils can swallow only one capsule of learning at a time. In order to insure proper digestion, I must give my pupils the same dosage in as many different ways as I can devise.

11. I must keep my terminology *very* simple, and I must realize that pupils with a foreign language background often cannot understand common English terms without explanation.

12. I am not disseminating factual information. I am trying to develop understanding in these pupils as to the meaning, influence, and use of science and math to *them*. I will probably have to write my own course of study.

13. I will be keenly sensitive to improvement or growth however small either will be. I will provide some objective means of indicating changes.

14. Pupils with limited ability challenge my finest pedagogical skill, and when I succeed in changing any of their habits, behaviors, or attitudes for the better, I know I have truly realized my mission as a teacher.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mrs. Smith is supervisor of mathematics and science in the Junior High Education Division of the Los Angeles Cal., Public Schools.



SCHOOL NEWS DIGEST



Edited by THE STAFF

CORRECTION: We regret that on page 518 of the May issue, we credited the reprinted paragraph headed "Slump in Science" to Guy P. Franck. The words are those of Morris Meister in his 1948 address as retiring president of the National Association of Science Teachers.

LOYALTY OATHS: State laws requiring special loyalty oaths of teachers are a menace to educational freedom, according to a statement issued by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. The 20 members of the Commission, says Murray Illson in the *New York Times*, include Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, president of Columbia University, James B. Conant, president of Harvard University, and William Jansen, superintendent of schools of New York City. The Commission recommends that students be given an opportunity to learn about "Communism and other forms of totalitarianism," although such doctrines should not be advocated. And while the Commission states that members of the Communist party of the U.S. should not be permitted to teach in the schools, the report urges that "citizens should be especially alert at this time to defend the essential need of the schools for freedom of teaching and learning."

BIRCH RODS, ETC.: Raise your eyebrows a bit, and we'll tell you about a catalogue that is sent annually to British schools by the Corpun Educational Organization, of London. This fall's catalogue, reports the *New York World Telegram*, is headed "Good News for Schoolteachers," and is devoted to descriptions and illustrations of birch rods, punishment canes, leather whipping thongs, and other devices whereby teachers can "get at the seat of student mischief." Corpun (Some pun!) is the leading mail-order house in the business of supplying such items to British schools. A "Mr. Wildman," head of the concern, says smugly, "A boy who gets birched at the start of the school year may not need it in the end." Just to give you an idea, one item in the catalogue concerns "our famous Nilgrihi natural root punishment cane," which because of bulk buying is now available at half the former price, or \$6 a dozen. We learn with interest that the catalogue has been sent to inquirers from the U. S. Can it be that some teachers over here have bought a one-dozen bundle of the famous Nilgrihi canes? After a hard day with the students,

there might be some satisfaction in just sitting and looking at the bundle.

SPANKING: Shortly after the opening of schools, a teacher in Indiana was fined \$1 by the judge for spanking a pupil. In this day of high costs, it seems to us that spankings are very reasonably priced in Indiana.

LIBERTIES: The pressures of those fearing Communist infiltration of the schools and colleges have grown so great that "the minority voices of educators opposed to the ban on them have been played down or silenced," the American Civil Liberties Union declares in its 29th annual report. The 92-page document, entitled *In the Shadow of Fear*, stresses that security measures against Communism in America have resulted in an "unprecedented array" of barriers to free association, forced declarations of loyalty, blacklists and purges, "and most menacing to the spirit of liberty, taboos on progressive programs and principles which are the heart of any expanding democracy." Copies of the report, which covers such civil liberties problems as conscientious objectors, freedom of speech and assembly, civil rights in the courts, labor's rights, and racial minorities, can be obtained for 25 cents each from the American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Ave., New York 10, N.Y.

LEISURE: Students of Juneau High School, Milwaukee, Wis., are kept informed of current leisure-time possibilities of the city by the "Find Fun Sheet," a weekly bulletin published by a tenth-grade English class. The sheet, says *Teaching Progress* (Milwaukee schools publication), features a wide variety of selected events, sports activities, exhibits, radio and television programs, movies at local theaters, lectures, etc. Miss Maude Staudenmeyer, faculty adviser of the project, might have some sample copies to send to readers who enclose stamped, addressed envelopes with their requests.

RETAILING: Of the 33 colleges in the U. S. which offer extensive programs in retailing, only 22 allow students to specialize in retailing as distinct from marketing, and there is a wide variation among the programs of the individual colleges, states John W. Wingate in *New York Retailer*, a

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journal for teachers of retailing, on the basis of a recent survey. All but 2 of the 33 colleges provide opportunity for cooperative work experience, but in only 18 is cooperative work an integral part of the program. Dr. Wingate says that his article offers the first comprehensive, classified lists of colleges which have extensive programs in retailing. Guidance counselors may obtain the January 1949 issue of the *New York Retailer* containing the article, for 25 cents, from the School of Business, City College, 17 Lexington Ave., New York 10, N.Y.

JANITORS: One of these days you may have a "certificated janitor" in your school. It seems, according to *Alabama School Journal*, that a group of superintendents recently met at Duke University, Durham, N.C., to study school building problems. The group recommended that the State Department of Education establish a plan for the certification of custodians and other maintenance workers, and that appropriate programs of courses be developed for the janitorial field by teacher-training institutions. This is probably a good idea, and we just hope it is kept within bounds. But the possibilities are disturbing. Your janitor will come back each fall, tired and irritable from sweating it out at summer school. He will be plagued by questionnaires to be filled out for janitors who are making counting studies or are working toward their advanced degrees, and will snap at you. He will be always out of pocket, attending workshops

on corner sweeping, institutes on mopping for democracy, conferences on firing the "whole furnace," and just plain meetings and conventions. And when you talk to him in baffling pedagogue, he will answer in the new mystifying janitorese.

DROP-OUTS: Some 553 out of every 1,000 high-school students—more than 1,000,000 each year—drop out of high school before graduation because they fail to find school programs that are interesting and satisfying. That, says the *New York Herald Tribune*, is what Dr. William G. Brink, of Northwestern University, found in a survey conducted for the U. S. Office of Education. Many feel—and with ample justification, says Dr. Brink—that the courses offered are highly abstract and have little practical value. The weakest link in our educational program was found to be citizenship training: history and civics classes often are little more than memory exercises.

LABOR: *Labor-Management Relations* is a free monthly bulletin that provides an annotated list of selected readings on labor-management relations. Designed primarily for high-school students and teachers, it is issued by the College of Education, University of Illinois, and the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations. The bulletin lists free and inexpensive pamphlets, and articles selected from magazines commonly available in high-school

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PERSONALS

This department is offered experimentally as a service to readers in the belief that secondary schools and school people need some medium in which they can arrange to sell, swap, or buy needed items or services, correspond with others on matters of mutual special interest, obtain or fill teaching positions, etc., etc.

RATES are 15 cents a word, including name and address. Box numbers 50 cents extra; we forward replies free. Payment must accompany copy.

Items not acceptable: Organizations that sell materials to the schools may not use this department to promote such items. Schools may not advertise second-hand textbooks. We shall do our best to exclude announcements from questionable sources, and questionable copy, but cannot be responsible for those "Personals" we accept. Readers should do any checking deemed necessary on statements made here. **THE CLEARING HOUSE** reserves the right to reject any copy submitted.

ADDRESS: Personals Dept., **THE CLEARING HOUSE**, 307 Fourth Ave., New York 3, N.Y.

WANTED: Copy *Teaching of Social Studies*: NYC Association of Social Studies Teachers; CEBCO; 1941. B. Alfonso; 4950 Dauphine Street, New Orleans 17, La.

WANTED: Challenging secondary English curriculum job requiring in-service teacher education and English revision for live teen-agers. CH Box 20.

HELP WANTED: Can you justify an admission charge to high-school interscholastic athletic contests? Your thoughts on this topic will be truly appreciated. H. S. Ortiz, Athletic Director, Waterford Twp. H. S., 1325 Crescent Lake Rd., Pontiac, Mich.

PRIZES. For the ten best "Tricks of the Trade" submitted by December 31 I'll be glad to award ten one-dollar prizes. For all others accepted I'll send you something educational and/or entertaining. For sample items see page 147 of this issue. Ted Gordon, East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.



Curriculum Revision: "Conversion Is $\frac{9}{10}$ Conviction of Sin"

SINGLY AND IN groups the faculty begin to assemble in the auditorium. Some arrive with laughter and a smile, not much caring what this meeting will bring. Some enter with a harried, worried look—it is obvious they take this "education business" seriously. One small group, wide-eyed with expectation, search the auditorium for this "authority" who will bring some order into their chaotic lives. Another section, notebooks clutched firmly in their ink-smudged hands, the vanguard of the status quo, march with grim determination to seats in the front row. Mostly they just look—tired!

As I sat in the rear of the auditorium with the principal, waiting for the spasmodic bounce of the minute hand to reach three, I began to dread the ordeal that awaited me. Begin reorganization here—impossible! These people wanted a good night's rest, free from the anxiety that "something might happen in their class tomorrow"! Perhaps I wouldn't be able to guarantee them a good night's rest, but I certainly would try to free them from the anxiety that "something might happen in their classrooms."

A sort of pity for these teachers engulfed me. They were missing so much of the fun and joy that should be theirs as "teachers" of youth. If I can make them want something better, I thought, I will be satisfied for this afternoon. And so I began curriculum reorganization at Clayton.

The reader has already realized that the speaker will not have an easy time with curriculum reorganization at Clayton. Some, perhaps, will counter with the observation that curriculum revision is not an easy task

in any school system, and no doubt they would be correct. It is not so much the ease of the task as the appropriateness and method of attack that are important.

Until we have convinced the teachers that their present curriculum needs changing, until we can "convict and convince them of sin," any change or modification of the curriculum will not be wholly successful.

There have been various methods and schemes advanced for beginning the revision process. I am not in sympathy with those who advocate the speedy adoption of curricular revisions. The speed of adoption does not seem to be of as great importance as the realization of the need for change, and it is here that a beginning can be made.

Rather than lecture to the entire faculty on the need for reorganization, I suggest a more effective approach. Every school has many students who just do not seem to "fit" into any of the existing programs. It is with one of these "misfits" that reorganization might begin.

Let us take Jim as an example. James Sullivan is in the tenth grade, and although he is only fifteen he has achieved physical proportions that make him appear out of place in a room of typically small tenth-graders. Never able to respond correctly to the questions of his teachers, Jim obtains the attention and approval of his classmates by a repertoire of antics, contortions, and general "devilment." Few teachers realize or understand why Jim acts as he does and none has taken the time to remove the causes for such behavior. "Naturally" Jim is not doing "passing" work, and most of the faculty dread the approach of a class with

our friend Jim on the "receiving end."

Tests reveal the fact that Jim is of average intelligence, very slow in reading comprehension but with a decided aptitude for mechanical manipulation. The fact that Jim does not have any technical or mechanical courses is slightly baffling.

At a meeting with those teachers who have Jim in their classes, the seeds of curriculum reorganization might be first planted. Leading the discussion might be the principal interested in beginning reorganization, a teacher, or the "specialist" called in for the purpose. Whoever the leader may be, it would become his job to help the teachers understand why Jim behaves as he does, why he does not "learn his lessons," why he continually disturbs the class, and how they might be able to help him.

After establishing the reasons for Jim's behavior, the leader must then approach the methods for correcting this behavior. Perhaps it will be revealed that since Jim has such high aptitude for mechanical work he would probably achieve some success in shop courses. Someone will be certain to point out the fact that Jim can't spend his entire day in the shop. He will have to be admitted to some academic subjects or courses as well.

A discussion might follow on the methods by which English, history, and the like could be presented to Jim so that he would attain some measure of success in those subjects too. Forgetting or ignoring the confines of the present curricular framework, the teachers might enjoy planning ways in which their subjects could be made more interesting for Jim were he the only student.

The group leader might at this point ask the teachers to mention those things, those "abilities," they think Jim should possess by the time he has completed the twelfth grade. A record of these "abilities" will reveal their practicability in relation to Jim's talents and limitations. It should not be difficult to stimulate the teachers to suggest learning experiences that would provide

Jim with the practice necessary to achieve these abilities.

One teacher is certain to take delight in expressing the opinion that such a procedure would be impossible—"the courses just will not permit such methods of teaching, let alone such objectives." It would be well to point out that in spite of the present curricular arrangements, these are the things the teachers would like to do for Jim and that they believe this proposed plan would help him.

From the individual case, the group leader might progress to the entire class or the entire student body. Perhaps others could profit by the methods and objectives established for Jim. Questions on whether the school is satisfying and satisfactorily meeting the needs and desires of other students open more doors to revision.

With these teachers as the "core" or central group, the work of reorganization can get under way. A listing of the particular needs and abilities of the present student body can become criteria by which the effectiveness of the present curriculum and methods are evaluated. Once the teachers are satisfied that the school should and does not now meet at least the common needs of all the students, the actual reorganization can safely begin. Establishing adequate and satisfying objectives, arranging curricular experiences to meet these objectives become logical next steps. Formalized lectures by "authorities" will not be necessary.

Curriculum reorganization approached from the view of teacher instigation and participation can be successful. By giving the teachers the opportunity to discover first the error of their present methods, successful revision is assured the support of those teachers who are serious in their efforts to provide educationally sound schools for America's youth.

BARTLETT C. LUBBERS
School of Education
University of Dayton
Dayton, Ohio

➤ BOOK REVIEWS ➤

KIMBALL WILES and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

Man on the Landscape, by VERNON GILL CARTER. Washington, D.C.: National Wildlife Federation, 1949. 129 pages, \$1.50.

Man on the Landscape is a concise, factual, and convincing presentation of the basic problems and principles of conservation, written for educators, students, farmers, foresters, and all "who eat plants on occasion." It gives a shocking exposé of man's ruthlessness in the use of the earth's soil, and is replete with photographs and evidence gathered from scientific research to support the premises of the author. Interestingly written and splattered with the author's humor, it is usable as a text in an introductory college course or as a teacher and student reference in high-school biology classes.

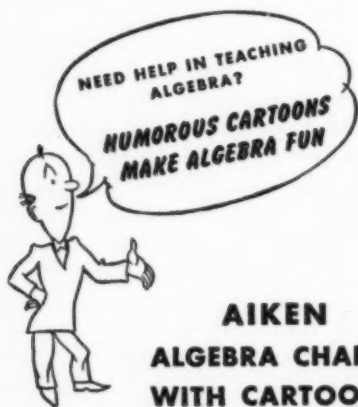
Vernon Carter clearly shows how man's own health and social welfare is directly dependent on the condition of the soil. "Flesh is grass . . ." and "the rise and fall of past cultures offers fair warning that nature reacts with certainty to errors in landscape management." The urgency for immediate and intelligent action in the United States is vividly proclaimed in the treatise.

Appendix A contains the author's plea for better trained teachers in the sciences, teachers who have mastered the fundamentals of conservation and can give real assistance in the general effort. He explores the fact that our teachers are not specialized enough and that the research specialist is too specialized. Appendix B describes many simple but effective conservation activities, correlated with the chapters in the text, for student groups of high-school and college levels. This book will become a "must" for teachers of biology, and will serve as a good introductory text for the college student.

LORENZO LISONBEE
North Phoenix High School
Phoenix, Ariz.

Our Industrial Age, by H. M. BOODISH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949. 390 pages, \$2.60.

This text, which claims to be "a basic textbook dealing with the origin and development of our industrial society and its major . . . problems," has its 13 chapters grouped into these three parts: "Society at Work," "Economic and Social Challenges,"



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and "Economic, Social, and Political Safeguards." The volume would seem best suited as an excellent supplementary text for academic American history classes, and as a fairly good terminal text for non-academic students who have had both world and American history.

Notably good are the annotated list of educational films grouped by chapters, and the clear format. At the end of each chapter are some 20 questions on the text, a dozen topics for reports, and selected (though unannotated) references. Illustrations are adequate and aptly used. The subject of each chapter is dealt with both historically and contemporaneously, and with a good sense of the direction in which lies still further human progress. Objectivity on controversial topics is fairly well maintained by the "some say this" and "some say that" technique.

Notably lacking are such things as a treatment of heartening labor-relations practices as established by our more enlightened corporations, a grasp of the degree to which "money interests" influence our internal and foreign affairs, adequate consideration of the farmers' roles in our industrial age, and the whole problem of the exploitation and conservation of our natural resources. The scholarship, index, and style of writing—as in most texts—all leave something to be desired. There is also a need for suggested projects at the end of each chapter other than the topics for reports, and the questions are such as to promote memoriter rather than analytical learning. These faults, however, will be more serious to the beginning than to the experienced teacher.

CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.
John Marshall High School
Rochester, N.Y.

English Handbook, by MATILDA BAILEY and GUNNAR HORN. New York: American Book Co., 1949. 402 pages, \$1.88.

Matilda Bailey and Gunnar Horn state in the preface that "a handbook must be the genii that can give answers quickly, painlessly, and correctly." They have made *English Handbook* just that. Grammar, capitalization, punctuation, diction, and spelling are given compact and complete coverage. As each language principle is presented illustrations are provided, and exercise material follows. Very carefully labeled diagrams will help the teacher who believes that visual aid is important in teaching concepts of grammar. There are no word games to play. No attempt is made to motivate interest. The book is, as its name implies, a handbook of facts.

Probably the most important feature of *English Handbook* is its adaptability. It could be used in college classes as well as in high-school grades. The

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ELIZABETH A. CORBETT

Albion High School

Albion, N.Y.

Education for Social Competence*, by I.*JAMES QUILLEN and LAVONE A. HANNA.**

Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1948.

572 pages, \$3.

This volume is part of the report of the Stanford Social Education Investigation, which made a five-year study of the theory and practice of social education with participants from ten school systems in the western part of the United States. Planned to serve as a basic text for social-studies teaching in the secondary school, it covers almost every phase of curriculum and method.

Particularly noteworthy is the study made by the Investigation of the value of the problem over the topical approach in teaching. Students using the problem-solving method showed greater progress in critical thinking, work habits, and study skills. They were superior in their command of library and research techniques and demonstrated more knowledge of contemporary affairs. They had a more liberal and consistent point of view and displayed an interest in a wider range of activities. These revelations should lead every social-studies teacher to re-examine his methodology in the light of these findings. Many newer techniques such as the panel, the round-table discussion, the forum, the research paper, and the community survey are also analyzed and explained.

If this volume is intended to serve the beginning as well as the experienced teacher, a greater treatment of the art of questioning and lesson planning would have been of service. The use of film strips as a visual aid, especially where school budgets are small, might likewise have merited more extensive discussion.

All in all, the report is forward-looking and stimulating in its approach. It should be a valuable addition to the library of social-studies teachers.

SAUL ISRAEL

Seward Park High School

New York City

The School-Centered Community*, by S. E.*TORSTEN LUND. Chicago: Anti-Defama-****tion League of B'nai B'rith, 1949. 42****pages, paper bound, 25 cents.***In writing advertisers please mention CLEARING HOUSE*

This pamphlet impressed me with its simple, concise, and dynamic logic. Dr. Lund presents a concept of adult education based on *social necessity*—on the fact that “the most important characteristic in our world is *change*” and “yet the closer we get to each other the more opportunity there is for misunderstanding.” His analysis proves that adult community education is an immediate social need. Furthermore he shows *how* it can be done in “Who Should Start Community Education?” I wish the author had described how to convince local boards of education of the necessity of financing adult education. Certainly, one way would be to place this pamphlet in the hands of all local boards.

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Yonkers, N.Y.

Occupations Today (new ed.), by JOHN M. BREWER and EDWARD LANDY. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1949. 383 pages, \$2.56.

In this new edition of an established text, the authors bring their previous work up to date with the inclusion of new material which reflects postwar trends in the field of occupations. Those familiar with the earlier editions of this book will not be

disappointed. Those unfamiliar with the work of John Brewer and Edward Landy are urged to examine this book, for while it is intended first of all as a text in an occupations class, there is introduced much excellent material which will help in the social, moral, and educational guidance of high-school youth.

The photographic illustrations in the text are profuse, interesting, and pertinent. The bibliography for both teachers and pupils is adequate. It is to be hoped that future editions will include a longer listing of suitable audiovisual material and a more complete guide to the use of such materials in the study of occupations.

In addition to use as a text for a course in occupations, this book should be included as a part of any guidance library or as a part of any school library. Valuable use can also be made of *Occupations Today* as source material for any unit centered on occupations in a core program or in the integrated curriculum.

CARL C. SALSURY
High School
Millburn, N.J.

An Introduction to Teaching in Secondary Schools, by LESTER B. SANDS. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. 421 pages, \$3.

The editor's foreword states that the author “provides the prospective high-school teacher a road

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The author's presentation as to material is comprehensive. Now one begins to check on his reference material to find that it is composed of other books—no references to materials in periodicals (see pp. 44-45). This omission continues throughout the volume.

The titles of Chapters IV to XVI indicate well their materials: IV. Community Assignments, Obligations, and Relationship; V. Getting Along with Your Associates; VI. Organizing Your School Work; VII. Studying and Counseling Your Students; VIII. Teacher Leadership and Class Curriculum; X. Planning Your Lessons; XI. Using Psychology in Education; XII. Using Texts, Workbooks, Tests, and Grades; XIII. Using Audio-Visual Aids in Teaching; XIV. Developing the Creative Powers of Students; XV. The Value of Philosophy to Teaching; XVI. Some Historical Backgrounds of American Education.

Each chapter is followed by a list of exercises. These are good for stimulating thinking in terms of detached theory that is actually separated from real experiences of students in existing schools. In the chapter on "Using Psychology in Education" the author presents a paragraph on Dewey's conception of "Experience in Education" but fails to use this idea of experiences with children and schools in seeing, studying, and doing by the student in such situations.

As one contemplates the present scene in teacher education, there is found therein the principle that teacher-education experiences should include laboratory experiences in schools and with children and communities. These should begin early and continue through the program, culminating in student teaching or internship and always interrelated with other phases of the program—subject matter, psychology of learning, child development, socio-economic bases of education, teaching practices aids, etc., and incorporating results of research.

The author's treatise ignores this whole section of the teacher-education program. It seems inexcusable in this period of varied schools, excellent schools, community schools, and the many places in which such experiences are now used, and it is the writer's conclusion that this book will help to perpetuate the bookishness of our teacher education, when it could

(Continued on page 190)

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The appointment of one person as business manager of extracurricular affairs may be the answer to some of the confusion and the feeling of overwork which the program of public events your school produces may induce among teachers and students.—*Paul Klinge*, p. 133.

When the body is sick and feverish, sometimes a sedative is administered to give the body a chance to recover. The class I have been describing is somewhat similar in its treatment for the confused and bewildered slow learner.—*Marion Struthers*, p. 140.

A plan of partial segregation as administered at Colfax School gives mentally gifted children an opportunity to work with their mental peers in those subjects in which they need mental stimulation, and with their other classmates in those fields where more social contacts are possible.—*Hedwig O. Pregler*, p. 143.

There's an academic nightmare that teases the teaching trade at least once a year, and that is generally known as Parents' Night.—*M. L. Moore*, p. 146.

Reading at the higher levels is specific to subject-matter areas. A student who is adept in understanding literature may have difficulty comprehending chemistry or physics.—*Charles W. Saale*, p. 148.

To discover leaders and close applications, a sociogram was made of the class. From this sociogram new groups were formed around natural leaders as

selected by individual pupils.—*Walter Heisler and Others*, p. 152.

Students do not learn to think logically and critically as a necessary concomitant of mastering geometrical theorems.—*Kenneth B. Henderson and Marian P. Fulton*, p. 158.

Knowing of these often violent likes and dislikes [concerning teachers] on the part of pupils, I attempted recently to learn the opinions of several thousand pupils enrolled in a score of high schools in scattered sections of the country.—*L. E. Leipold*, p. 164.

It can be seen from this study that high-school pupils do have a large number of personal problems of which they are aware and that there are significant relationships between these problems and the factors of grade level, high-school enrolment, age, sex, residence, and father's occupation.—*Lola Buchanan and Ray Bryan*, p. 172.

Youth likes discipline; youth craves orderliness and coordinated effort. Youth seeks team-play and group activity. But discipline must be based on interest.—*John H. Schwatka*, p. 176.

Until we have convinced the teachers that their present curriculum needs changing, until we can "convict and convince them of sin," any change or modification of the curriculum will not be wholly successful.—*Bartlett C. Lubbers*, p. 180.

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Extracurricular Troubles? Try a Business Manager	<i>Paul Klinge</i>	131
They Competed Only with Themselves	<i>Marion Struthers</i>	134
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BOOK REVIEWS

(Continued from page 186)

have added this other feature. The secondary school is slowly, very slowly, adapting to improved educational practices, and to aid in perpetuation of the separation of practice (laboratory experiences) and other experiences, will not speed the process of adaptation.

A. R. MEAD, Director
Bureau of Educ. Research
College of Education
University of Florida

Books Received

Science and Mathematics

Practical Biology Workbook, by Edwin F. Sanders and Philip Goldstein. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1949. 130 pages, paper bound, \$1.44.

Modern-School Solid Geometry (new ed.), by Roland R. Smith and John R. Clark. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1949. 256 pages, \$1.76.

Carpentry Mathematics (new 2nd ed.), by J. Douglas Wilson and Clell M. Rogers. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949. 249 pages, \$2.20.

Pamphlets Received

Curriculum in Intergroup Relations—Case Studies in Instruction, by the Staff of Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1949. 168 pages, \$1.25.

Getting Along with Others, by Helen Shacter. Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates, 1949. 48 pages, 60 cents.

Which Step First? The Relation of Sequence to Language Achievement, by Gilbert C. Kettelkamp. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Bulletin, April 1949, 40 pages.

Unesco in Focus, by James L. Henderson. Chicago: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1949. 55 pages, 25 cents.

Civil Rights: Barometer of Democracy, by Edward J. Sparling. Chicago: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1949. 48 pages, 25 cents.

Leader's Guide—A Manual on Better Human Relations for Leaders in Youth Agencies, by Ann G. Wolfe. New York: The American Jewish Committee, 40 pages, 15 cents.

Comics, Radio, Movies—and Children, by Josette Frank. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1949. 32 pages, 20 cents.

Community Service in the Dalton School, by Nora Hodges. New York: The Dalton Schools, Inc., 1949. 64 pages, 40 cents.

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SCHOOL NEWS DIGEST

(Continued from page 179)

libraries. Each issue includes a section of references devoted to some particular area or problem. In selecting entries, the editors have taken pains to maintain balance among various points of view. Teachers may write for free single subscriptions to Ralph McCoy, librarian, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

INFLUENTIAL BOOKS: The 10 books which, in the opinion of publishers, have "most progressively influenced American thought in 1948," are announced by the Book Manufacturers' Institute: *Crusade in Europe* by DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER (Doubleday); *Cry, The Beloved Country* by Alan Paton (Scribner); *Education in a Divided World* by James Bryant Conant (Harvard); *The Gathering Storm* by Winston S. Churchill (Houghton Mifflin); *The Naked and the Dead* by Norman Mailer (Rinehart); *No Place to Hide* by David Bradley (Little, Brown); *Our Plundered Planet* by Fairfield Osborn (Little, Brown); *Road to Survival* by William Vogt (William Sloane); *Roosevelt and Hopkins* by Robert E. Sherwood (Harper); and *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male* by Kinsey, Pomeroy, and Martin (Saunders).

LOUDER, PLEASE: It isn't actual need, but the degree of neighborhood clamor, that determines which sections of New York City are getting priority in the 1950 school construction schedule. That's what James Marshall, member of the city's board of education, charges in the *New York Post*. Some neighborhoods that have crowded schools, he says, have been pushed off the building priority list in favor of neighborhoods that have less crowded schools but stronger lungs. In one case, a neighborhood apparently fought its way onto the priority list by a barrage of postcards addressed to school officials. This sort of thing is regrettable—but it seems to get new school buildings.

PUBLICITY: The high school in Mendota, Ill., a town of 5,000, employs a public-relations firm to handle its publicity. A local advertising and public-relations organization which has an active interest in community welfare agreed to serve the school for "a small, token remuneration," says M. E. Steele in *Illinois Education*. The two aims of the publicity program are: to build and maintain community pride in the high school; and to create a lasting impression on the rural population that the school offers more to rural students than any other high school in the territory.

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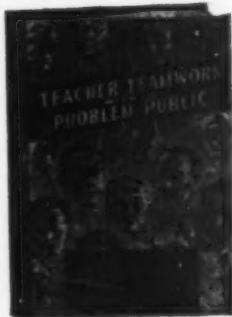
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